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ABSTRACT

This study evaluates the language-related programs mandated in the Fulbright-Hays Act of 1961, a federal policy designed to promote national security through the promotion of advanced language training and access of the U.S. government to such expertise. This study has two principal components: a retrospective assessment of the effectiveness of Title VI/Fulbright-Hays (Title VI/F-H) in meeting its statutory goals with regard to foreign language; and a look to the future with recommendations based on current law, past performance, and an empirically-based assessment of current needs for language in the United States. It is concluded that the United States, through Title VI/F-H has sustained the nation's capacity in less commonly taught languages (LCTLs), many of which have or have had strategic importance. Title VI/F-H has also played a key role in supporting basic research in linguistics and second language acquisition, been crucial to the training of foreign language experts, and meeting the needs of business and government for such services. It is also concluded that Title VI/F-H faces unprecedented new challenges in the years ahead as a result of the political, social, economic, and technological developments of the past 15. Eleven specific recommendations are made for the strengthening of the language component of Title VI/F-H, focusing on encouraging the study of foreign languages, funding more basic research, and involving resident native speakers of strategically important languages in these efforts. The book is divided into 5 chapters and includes references, several appendices, and an index. (KFT)

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Language and National Security in the 21st Century

The Role of Title VI/Fulbright-Hays in Supporting National Language Capacity

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACTFL	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
ACTR	American Council of Teachers of Russian
AORC	American Overseas Research Centers
APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
APSIA	Association of Professional Schools of International Affairs
BATF	Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms
BIE	Business and International Education
CASA	Center for Arabic Studies Abroad
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
CIBE	Centers for International Business Education
CRS	Congressional Research Service
CTL	Commonly taught language
DCI FLC	Director of Central Intelligence Foreign Language Committee
DDRA	Doctoral Dissertation Research Abroad
DEA	Drug Enforcement Administration
DLI	Defense Language Institute
DTRA	Defense Threat Reduction Agency
EELIAS	Evaluation of Exchange, Language, International, and Area Studies
EOIR	Executive Office of Immigration Review
EU	European Union
FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigation
FBIS	Foreign Broadcast Information Service
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
FILR	Federal Interagency Language Roundtable
FLAS	Foreign Language and Area Studies
FRA	Faculty Research Abroad
FRD	Federal Research Division

FSA	Faculty Semesters Abroad
GAO	General Accounting Office
GPRA	Government Performance and Results Act of 1993
IEGPS	International Education and Graduate Programs Service
IIPP	Institute for International Public Policy
IRS	International Research and Studies
LCTL	Less commonly taught language
LOTE	Language other than English
LRC	Language Resource Center
LTI	Language Testing International, Inc.
MLA	Modern Language Association
NAFTA	North American Free Trade Agreement
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NCOLCTL	National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages
NDEA	National Defense Education Act of 1958
NDFL	National Defense Foreign Language
NFLC	National Foreign Language Center
NGO	Nongovernmental organization
NIH	National Institutes of Health
NRC	National Resource Centers
NRC	National Resource Centers
NSA	National Security Agency
NSEP	National Security Education Program
ONI	Office of Naval Intelligence
OPI	Oral Proficiency Interview
PTO	Patent and Trademark Office
SOCOM	U.S. Special Operations Command
SSA	Social Security Administration
Title VI/F-H	Title VI of the Higher Education Act of 1965 and its companion legislation, the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act of 1961, Section 102(b)(6), commonly known as Fulbright-Hays
UISFL	Undergraduate International Studies and Foreign Language
USCG	U.S. Coast Guard
USED	U.S. Department of Education
WMD	Weapons of mass destruction
WTO	World Trade Organization

Language and National Security for the Twenty-First Century: The Role of Title VI/Fulbright-Hays in Supporting National Language Capacity

Executive Summary

This study evaluates the language component of Title VI of the Higher Education Act as well as the language-related programs of its companion legislation, Section 102 (b)(6) of the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act of 1961, Section 102(b)(6), commonly known as Fulbright-Hays. Title VI/F-H is the successor to the 1958 National Defense Education Act, and it is the largest and longest-standing federal program dedicated to the promotion of national security through language, area, international, and international business studies programs in the higher education system of the United States. From its origins as a narrowly focused program to support language training, Title VI/F-H has grown into a diverse collection of programs that advance the national interest by supporting various aspects of international education.

The present study has two principal components:

- A retrospective assessment of the effectiveness of Title VI/F-H in meeting its statutory goals with regard to foreign language; and
- A look to the future, with recommendations based on the mission of Title VI/F-H, its past performance, and an unprecedented, empirically based assessment of current needs for language in the United States

This study differs from its predecessors in important ways, even while standing on their shoulders. First, it focuses exclusively on language, to the exclusion of area studies, international studies, and international business studies—the other fields supported by Title VI/F-H. Second, it evaluates the extent to which postsecondary language programs funded by Title VI/F-H contribute to national security, which is understood to encompass political/military, social, and economic issues. The study comes at a time when the role of language in national security is growing, changing dramatically, and becoming more complex. Third, the study establishes a comprehensive framework of national language needs and capacity, and specifies, for the first time, national needs for language and the capacity required to meet those needs. Such a specification should be immediately useful in enabling the Title VI/F-H community and the U.S. Department of Education to meet the terms of the Government Performance and Results Act of 1993.

Retrospective Assessment of the Language Component of Title VI/F-H

Through its focus on language and its strategy of supporting flagship programs, Title VI/F-H has sustained the nation's capacity in the less commonly taught languages (LCTLs), many of which have had, now have, and will have strategic importance for the United States, often at unpredictable moments. The support of Title VI/F-H has been *critical* in this area; without that support, knowledge of many LCTLs would be lost to the country.

In other respects, the legislation's record in meeting its statutory goals has been mixed.

Title VI/F-H funding has played and continues to play an important role in support of *basic research* in linguistics and second language acquisition, particularly through the Language Resource Center program. Professional standards, learning and teaching materials, language tools, technologies, and assessment instruments developed with Title VI/F-H support have played pivotal roles across the foreign language field and in specific language areas.

Support from Title VI/F-H has been crucial in the training of *foreign language experts*—including researchers, teachers, and tool developers—through graduate degree programs and in-service faculty development activities. Again, our nation's present level of expertise in the LCTLs derives largely from programs supported by Title VI/F-H.

Meeting the needs of business and the professions for *practitioners* with proficiency in foreign languages is a major accomplishment of Title VI/F-H, particularly Part B of the legislation. Although it is clear that Title VI/F-H supplies a significant part of the pool of potential practitioners with language competence, better measures are needed of the impact of Title VI/F-H programs in this area. Tracking the career paths of students who have received Title VI/F-H support would be one such measure. For the moment, the degree of the legislation's success in meeting national needs for language-proficient professionals remains unclear.

Title VI/F-H can take credit for providing much of the foreign language education in our nation's colleges and universities. Institutions supported by Title VI/F-H enroll a disproportionate share of the nation's language students, and their flagship language programs attract most of the students of LCTLs. In view of the generally low level of national language enrollments, however, the record of Title VI/F-H in producing a *globally aware and linguistically proficient citizenry* is equivocal. Given the low level of Title VI/F-H funding and the immensity of the task implicit in "citizen education," the modest performance is not surprising.

Many of the languages most important to our national security would not be taught or researched in our nation's colleges and universities without the support of Title VI/F-H. Although our nation's overall capacity in the LCTLs remains dangerously low, the success of Title VI/F-H in nurturing that capacity must be viewed as a thoroughly positive contribution of the legislation to U.S. national security.

Prospective Assessment of National Language Needs

Title VI/F-H faces unprecedented new challenges in meeting national language needs. The data presented in Chapter 4 reveal a sea change in those needs, a result of the political, social, economic, and technological developments of the last 15 years. The new developments have generated increases in the need for language skills overall, in the number of languages needed, and the activities for which they are needed.

Political and Military Needs. The language needs of the U.S. federal government, and particularly those of the armed forces, are of unprecedented scope and complexity. The missions of some 67 federal agencies depend in part on proficiency in more than 100 foreign languages. In 1985, only 19 agencies had such requirements. Mission-critical performance at many agencies—from the State Department to the Patent and Trademark Office—suffers from the inability to meet current language requirements.

Economic Needs. Growth in the language services sector has been explosive in recent years, reflecting similar growth in private-sector demand for language expertise. Large sectors of the economy—such as software, telecommunications, and financial services—are unable to penetrate foreign markets or, in some cases, to develop products and services in the languages of their prospective customers because of a shortage of language expertise. Throughout the private sector, language is seen as an important component of a broader skill set that includes intercultural competence, experience abroad, and domain-specific skills.

Social Needs. The language requirements of the immigration courts, postal service, FBI, Social Security Administration, and many other agencies have expanded as the United States becomes more culturally diverse and internationally engaged. More services are now required in more languages, notably in Russian (and other languages of the former Soviet Union) and in the languages of China and Africa. The new requirements involve world health concerns, environmental issues, migration, and law enforcement.

Recommendations for Strengthening the Language Component of Title VI/F-H

So that Title VI/F-H may better meet national needs for language in the coming century, we offer a set of recommendations for strengthening the language component of this very successful legislation. The recommendations that follow take into consideration the unique and critical role Title VI/F-H has played in supporting national capacity in foreign language and reflect the sea change in language needs that has occurred over the past 15 years. Most of the recommendations focus on improving the performance of Title VI/F-H as currently constituted.

- Refocus Title VI/F-H on language—especially the LCTLs—by reemphasizing the importance of language in area studies, international studies, international business studies, and international educational mobility, and by pursuing a significant increase in LCTL enrollments across the country, as well as meaningful improvement in the language proficiency of Title VI/F-H graduates
- Improve the supply of proficient candidates to meet federal language requirements for national security and economic competitiveness through support of language programs and individual learners at flagship institutions
- Supplement Title VI/F-H's traditional focus on institutions and individuals with a strategy for building national language infrastructure, specifically by strengthening the architecture of the language fields
- Increase the cost-effectiveness and quality of LCTL programs, as well as institutional access to those programs, through resource sharing among language-instruction providers across the country
- Involve nonacademic sectors, particularly the federal government and the communities of Americans of foreign descent, in Title VI/F-H language efforts, especially those efforts that contribute to strengthening the architecture of language fields
- Develop and implement a more targeted applied research agenda that, while coordinated with and supportive of emerging basic research in second

language acquisition and other cognitive sciences, is explicitly responsive to the needs of language fields and institutional programs

- Establish a priority in appropriate Title VI/F-H programs to assist language and literature departments in introducing or strengthening applied linguistics and second language acquisition in their graduate programs
- Broaden the range and increase the number of professionals who have the linguistic competence to practice their professions globally
- Increase the efficiency of Title VI/F-H-supported programs to provide information, resources, and expertise directly to policy makers in domains of national security and economic competitiveness
- Make Title VI/F-H programs more prominent in presenting the need for language proficiency in the United States, specifically in the interest of national security and economic security
- Explore the establishment of ad hoc or permanent mechanisms to monitor national needs and capacity in language, and to assess how those needs and that capacity are affected by federal, state, and local programs, including Title VI/F-H

CHAPTER 1

Language and National Security: An Introduction

With the passage of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958 and with each subsequent reauthorization of its successor, Title VI of the Higher Education Act of 1965 and its companion legislation, the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act, Section 102(b)(6) (commonly known as Fulbright-Hays), Congress has demonstrated its belief that the security of the nation depends upon the global knowledge and language competence of Americans. The 1998 amendments contain the following language:

> *The security, stability and economic vitality of the United States in a complex global era depend upon American experts in and citizens knowledgeable about world regions, foreign languages and international affairs, as well as upon a strong research base in these areas.*[1]

As part of the Higher Education Act, Title VI/F-H clearly reflects the premise that the formal education system has a critical role to play in building and maintaining the nation's ability to supply linguistic expertise and, furthermore, that the federal government has a responsibility to support that role. As it stands, Title VI/F-H is the largest and longest-standing federal program dedicated to the support of national security through language, area, international, and international business studies programs in the education system of the United States. (The other major federally funded program concerned with language as a vital aspect of national security is the National Security Education Program, which has been in existence since 1991.)

For our definition of national security, we take the terms of reference of the Clinton administration's October 1998 white paper on the subject, *A National Security Strategy for a New Century*, which embraces the three principal goals for national security articulated in its 1996 predecessor, *A National Security Strategy of Enlargement and Engagement*.[2] Those goals are enhancing security at home and abroad, promoting prosperity, and promoting democracy.

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Security depends on effective action in many areas, including diplomacy, international assistance, arms control, nonproliferation and management of weapons of mass destruction, international law enforcement, the environment, terrorism, major theater warfare and other military operations, intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance, space missile defense, emergency preparedness, and the projection of power overseas. *Prosperity* involves access to foreign markets, an open trading system, effective export strategies and advocacy, secure energy sources, and sustainable development abroad, among other things. Finally, *democracy* depends on assisting emerging democracies, adhering to universal human rights and democratic principles, and promoting humanitarian activities.

National security interests entail interaction and communication with all areas of the globe. In Chapter 4 we provide evidence that the scope and depth of these interactions and communications require competence in languages other than English on the part of many individuals, including ambassadors and other personnel working in our embassies and consulates around the world; representatives of the many federal agencies concerned with disease control, law enforcement, the environment, and other issues; employees and executives of companies exporting goods and services abroad; and administrators and workers in the many nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) focused on development or education in countries around the world; as well as the personnel of other public and private enterprises involved in the political, social, and economic aspects of national security.

History of Title VI/F-H

The Original Mission

Today, the mission of Title VI/F-H within the U.S. Department of Education (USED) is to provide funding to educational institutions and individuals in support of international education and research, specifically language, area, international, and international business studies. However, the original mission of the program was considerably narrower. Its focus was on language—the original label attached to Title VI of the NDEA in 1958 was "Title VI-Language Development"—with area studies included only as "other fields needed for a full understanding of the area, region, or country in which such language is commonly used." Part A of the legislation, entitled "Centers and Research and Studies," which contained the predecessors to the present National Resource Centers (NRC), Foreign Language and Area Studies (FLAS) fellowships, and International Research and Studies (IRS) programs (formerly Research and Studies), singled out specific languages, namely those

> *with respect to which the Commissioner [of Education] determines (1) that individuals trained in such language are needed by the Federal Government or by business, industry, or education in the United States and (2) that adequate instruction in such language is not readily available in the United States.*[3]

Thus, the initial focus of Title VI was clearly on language and, in particular, on the languages that today are known as "less commonly taught languages" (LCTLs). Part B of the legislation, however, entitled "Language Institutes," was intended for teachers "of any modern foreign language in elementary or secondary schools," which, then as now, would include the "commonly taught languages" (French, German, and Spanish).

In addition to the focus on language, the overall goal of the original NDEA legislation was to "insure trained manpower of sufficient quality and quantity to meet the national defense needs of the United States." "Trained manpower" in the original legislation focused on experts in language and world areas, although the training of secondary school teachers as contemplated in Part B certainly implied broad outreach to the general citizenry. It further provided support for research through one of the four original Title VI programs.

Finally, the NDEA in general was very practical. Its goal was to meet national security needs. That original focus, now much more broadly interpreted, is reflected in the functional or instrumental approach to language adopted in this study. Mary McGroarty, a leading researcher on U.S. language policy, describes the durability of that approach as follows:

> *Most public discourse and legislative or executive decisions related to language have not been driven by appeals to ideals such as multilingualism or abstract beliefs regarding the place of multiple language abilities in a demanding academic curriculum. While these benefits may be adduced as secondary benefits, pragmatic and instrumental concerns that treat language learning as the means to other socially approved ends such as better educational attainment and enhanced job possibilities on the individual level or improved national security in the domains of trade, defense, or diplomacy at the national level, testify to Americans' pragmatic and largely individualistic, orientations toward language issues.*[4]

The Expanded Mission

The decision to define the original programs funded under the NDEA within relatively narrow confines reflects the presence of a very real and immediate threat: the technological accomplishments of the Soviet Union, as embodied in the launch of *Sputnik* and the spread of communism around the globe. In the decades following NDEA, however, the mission of Title VI/F-H was expanded to include a much broader range of content and constituencies. This expansion, as seen against the original mission, has provoked much discussion over the years, particularly in the regular reauthorization process, where the case for continuing and changing need as well as for a broadened constituency has driven program expansion.

The expansion of the mission of Title VI/F-H can be viewed against a set of tensions between the original design decisions of NDEA and the revisions and additions that have taken place over the years.

Language vs. Area Studies

Little doubt has been expressed about the need to have knowledge about the area of the world where a language is spoken, or about the need for the language itself in obtaining the requisite knowledge. However, with regard to the allocation of resources, questions concerning the percentage of budget reserved for language as opposed to area studies remain lively and persistent policy issues. The problem has been exacerbated over the years by the fact that the original focus on language and area studies has been expanded to the more general mission of "international education." To reflect this broadened mission, Title VI has been called "International Education Programs" since 1980. The result is that language now is one of many disciplines competing for funding under Title VI/F-H. The original focus on language, though, is retained in the requirement that virtually all programs funded under Title VI/F-H must have a language component.

Less Commonly Taught Languages vs. Commonly Taught Languages

The four original programs funded under Title VI of the NDEA had two language-related focal points. First, with respect to "Centers and Fellowships," the legislative intent was clearly to provide resources for languages in which "adequate instruction . . . is not readily available in the United States." The "Research and Studies" part of the legislation was unspecific in this regard, but the original Part B, "Teacher Training Institutes," clearly applied to all languages taught in grades K–12, which at that time included French, German, and Spanish, as well as a smattering of offerings in Russian. This dual focus continues to this day, with the NRC, FLAS fellowship, and to some extent the Language Resource Center (LRC) programs focusing strongly on LCTLs and all other programs including or supporting the more commonly taught languages as well as the LCTLs. Thus, while it seems clear that Congress intends Title VI/F-H to support the study of all foreign languages in the nation's schools, colleges, and universities, there is no doubt that the LCTLs were—and are—singled out for special attention.

Specialist Training vs. General International Education

Perhaps the most important and controversial division within Title VI/F-H is that between the original mission to effect the "training of specialists" and the expanding trend over the years toward "general diffusion of international knowledge." The legislative history of Title VI chronicles its expansion from a program of narrowly defined purpose and activities focused on language and area studies to one that encompasses the broad range of disciplines falling under the rubric of international education. This broadening began in 1965 with the passage of the International Education Act (for which funds were never appropriated) and entered the statutes with the Higher Education Act Amendments of 1980. Title VI/F-H now takes as its mission international education at all levels of the education system and before the general public. The present report does not discuss the advisability of this broad mandate, other than to say that the program's modest level of funding makes it more difficult to pursue both the specialist and general-education goals. Shortly after the 1980 amendments, one commentator wrote:

> *[G]iven the program's modest funding, it is unrealistic to expect Title VI to pursue both of these aims effectively. At the same time, political logic suggests that to select one of them to the exclusion of the other is unrealistic.*
>
> *Although a choice may theoretically exist between these two objectives, our analysis of congressional actions and the interests of program constituents indicates that such a choice is not realistically possible. The recent reauthorization process indicates that Title VI/F-H will not only remain both a specialist-producing and a general education program, but that in time its objectives will become even more diffuse.*[5]

Although the broadening of the Title VI/F-H mandate has been beneficial in attracting more support for the legislation from Congress, the expanded mission will be difficult to evaluate under the Government Performance and Results Act of 1993 (GPRA), which requires federal program managers to substantiate explicitly the benefits of their programs to the nation. That is difficult to do when the goals of the legislation are very broad. Thus, while one can argue that the broadened mandate of Title VI/F-H, particularly in the area of general international education and outreach to professional practitioners, is indeed valuable, its strategic and societal impacts are extremely difficult to determine and to document.

The present report begins with the assumption that the general education components of Title VI/F-H programs have an important social contribution to make, whatever else they accomplish educationally. Even those Title VI/F-H language programs that are not specifically oriented to producing experts contribute to the national security by broadening the pipeline from which the experts come. Thus, for example, Undergraduate International Studies and Foreign Language (UISFL) is a program intended to seed international studies programs in institutions across the nation. One consequence of such a program will be to draw more students into the language learning enterprise. Some of those students will become experts.

A second, more instrumental point about the value of language and general international education can be found in a recent Pentagon study describing possible scenarios for future global conflict. In this study, the most positive scenario depicts a "citizenry aware of the global aspects of national security," including language.[6] That educated citizenry, which presumably will allow strategic investments to be made in language and the other disciplines that provide an understanding of the global aspects of national security, must come from somewhere. Clearly, the source must be the education system. The programs designed to produce this kind of citizenry are the responsibility of Title VI/F-H, the only federal program mandated to accomplish this task on a national scale.

Maintenance of Expertise vs. Production of New Expertise

Some previous studies have suggested that Title VI/F-H has produced a sufficiency of expertise and that the present need is to maintain the capacity already achieved.[7] Unfortunately, this assertion has been made in the absence of any data concerning national need, even though there has been some attempt to document the supply of and demand for language and area studies expertise. We shall argue below that there has been a qualitative shift in the need for language expertise in the United States, a shift that deepens the abiding disjunction between the expressed demand for language expertise and the true national need. If expressed demand underestimates true need, appearances of a sufficiency of supply may well be illusory.

World Areas vs. Themes and Disciplines

The decades-old debate about the place of area studies in American education revolves around the need for specialists in a particular area of the world who do research and teach in a particular discipline and have a clear subspecialty in a language or area, as opposed to scholars who identify themselves as belonging primarily to a discipline, with perhaps only a passing acquaintance with one or more areas of the globe. However that debate plays out, Title VI/F-H will continue to have the responsibility of producing experts with the requisite language and area expertise and so will have to accommodate the consequences of successive resolutions of the debate.

Higher Education vs. K–12

Federal programs focusing on research, expertise, and professional practice tend to be funded under the Higher Education Act and thus concentrate on programs in the nation's colleges and universities. However, from the very beginning, Title VI of the NDEA (Part B) provided support to train language teachers at the K–12 level. This extension of support is reflected in the latest reauthorization, which includes as a permissible activity for the LRCs "the development and dissemination of materials designed to serve as a resource for foreign language teachers at the elementary and secondary school levels."

The most critical reason for including secondary education in the language learning system is the amount of time it takes to learn languages, particularly those that are not cognate with English. Research has shown that the amount of time it takes to acquire functional language skills varies, a fact recognized by the categorization employed by all federal language training agencies. This categorization comprises four levels:

- Category 1 includes languages such as Dutch, Spanish, and French
- Category 2 includes languages such as German, Swedish, and Malaysian

- Category 3 comprises languages such as Russian, Kazakh, and Hausa
- Category 4 includes the "truly foreign languages," such as Arabic, Japanese, Korean, and Mandarin[8]

Category 1 requires 24 weeks of full-time intensive instruction (30 hours per week) to reach the level 2 in the scale devised by the Federal Interagency Language Roundtable (FILR level 2). Category 3 requires 44 to 47 weeks; and Category 4, 63 weeks.[9] The point here is that it is virtually impossible for a learner to acquire functional proficiency in a language, let alone a Category 3 or 4 language, within the amount of time allotted in language programs at the university level. For example, it is estimated that it would take eight years in a traditional university language program (without extended study abroad) to achieve the minimal functional level in Russian.[10] For that reason, the administrators of university language programs would like nothing better than to have basic and intermediate language instruction become the responsibility of the K–12 system, thereby freeing college programs to concentrate on the advanced levels and to expand programming for students wishing to take a second foreign language. (The United States is the only developed country that places the burden of language instruction at the tertiary level.)

The fact that competence in a second language requires years of study explains the desire of language pedagogues and policy makers to begin language education at the earliest possible time, preferably in elementary school and no later than high school. Because the nation's capacity in language competence to a large degree depends on having language programs at the K–12 level and on having qualified teachers staffing them, it is logical and appropriate that Title VI/F-H have the training of these teachers as part of its mission.

Training for language teachers at the secondary level has always been seen as a strategy to improve teaching and learning in all languages across the board in the United States. Just as was the case 40 years ago, Spanish and French continue to dominate the current language scene at the K–12 level. Accordingly, any assistance extended to the K–12 system necessarily affects primarily the commonly taught languages (CTLs), although there is a presence of the LCTLs in schools today that did not exist in the late 1950s.[11] Most important, however, is the fact that the dichotomy between CTL and LCTL can be injurious here, because research has shown that learners who have had French or Spanish are more successful at learning another, presumably less commonly taught, language.[12] Thus, besides being justifiable on the basis of the national need for French, German, and Spanish, improving the experience of students learning a CTL in our nation's schools will be beneficial to the LCTLs as well.

Language vs. Cultural Understanding

Another strong but perhaps more subtle reason for the expansion of the Title VI/F-H mission towards educating citizens in the broader domain of international studies can be found in two recent studies of corporate attitudes towards language and cultural awareness.[13] Both studies concluded that, all things being equal, American businesses prefer new employees with experience in other cultures to those with formal instruction in foreign language. This preference makes sense for a corporation that may have to send an employee to Tokyo tomorrow, Jakarta next month and Santiago by the beginning of the next year. In other words, companies recognize the value of flexible employees with overseas experience, but hiring one with competence in a specific foreign language implies more of a commitment to a specific, single country or culture than a company might be willing to make. Thus, in lieu of overseas experience, international studies courses that provide cultural awareness are important.

Although these attitudes make sense and at least in part underlie the expansion of the Title VI/F-H mission beyond language, there is a danger that language may be significantly underappreciated in the process. What is missed in these corporate perceptions is that language skills enable and greatly enrich the overseas cultural immersions. Language programs traditionally stress the connection between language and overseas experience, but the case is usually narrowly conceived and weakly made.[14] Finally, it should be noted that language programming today focuses more and more on culture, so that even if the students take only one or two years of a language they gain exposure to, and some degree of facility in dealing with, other cultures—positive skills in the eyes of corporate hiring officers.

The tensions discussed here have been at play as Title VI/F-H has evolved and broadened. The discussion and controversy they have generated over the years have resulted in a set of programs that "provide an integrated and comprehensive approach, supporting activities impacting on the elementary and secondary levels through undergraduate, graduate, and advanced research, with emphasis on the less commonly-taught languages and areas of the world."[15] This integrated and comprehensive approach makes it difficult to evaluate the language contributions of individual constituent programs and results in the comprehensive strategy adopted in this report.

Current Activities and Programs Funded by Title VI/F-H

The current activities and programs created or funded under Title VI/F-H include:

- University-housed centers for research, training, outreach, and equity of access (National Resource Centers, Centers for International Business Education, Institute for International Public Policy)

- Graduate student support in the form of fellowships and study-abroad stipends (Foreign Language and Area Studies Fellowships, Fulbright-Hays Doctoral Dissertation Research Abroad Fellowships, Fulbright-Hays Group Research Abroad, Institute for International Public Policy)
- International program-seeding across the nation (Undergraduate International Studies and Foreign Language Program, Business and International Education Program, Institute for International Public Policy)
- Education programs for undergraduate and graduate students in disciplines across the campus, especially in business (Centers for International Business Education, Business and International Education Program)
- Faculty development programs involving study and research abroad (Fulbright-Hays Faculty Research Abroad Program, American Overseas Research Centers)
- Research programs with defined priorities based on the changing needs for international education (International Research and Studies Program, Language Resource Centers)

The Current Context of National Language Needs

Any view of the value of Title VI/F-H and the role of language in the United States must take into consideration the astonishing change in the world's political, economic, and social order, as well as the revolution in global communications, all of which have affected the language needs of U.S. society. We review the most significant of those changes below.

Language Competence in a Changing World

The emergence of globalization and democratization, and the role of the United States as the world's lone superpower, have had far-reaching consequences for language needs in the political, economic, and social domains.

Globalization—defined as the free movement of goods, money, people, and information—involves, in Thomas Friedman's words:

> *the inexorable integration of markets, nation-states and technologies to a degree never witnessed before—in a way that is enabling individuals, corporations and nation-states to reach around the world farther, faster, deeper and cheaper than ever before.*[16]

Democratization describes the worldwide trend of peoples to insist on their rights to self-rule and unique identity in the former Soviet Union, South Africa, Yugoslavia, Turkey, Iraq, Tibet, Sri Lanka, Hawaii, New Zealand, and hundreds of other locations around the globe.

The U.S. military maintains a world presence. From the fall of the Soviet Union to the conflict in Kosovo, political events have resulted in a qualitative change in the language needs of the United States, as we shall see in Chapter 4. As the world's only superpower, the United States is required to maintain capacity in languages sufficient to communicate with virtually all the world.

The post-Cold War world order presents challenges to governments and NGOs in the *political arena*, as more peoples around the world assert their independent identities and come into conflict with newly empowered indigenous minorities or neighboring peoples engaged in similar pursuits. History has shown repeatedly that language plays a major role in a group's self-identification, being the most powerful binding force after family, as well as the means by which culture is conveyed.[17] As never before, local and national ethnic groups around the world, having found their voice, now reject the languages of colonial powers and insist on using their own. Instances abound in Africa, Latin America, Eastern Europe, and the former Soviet Union. For example, diplomatic communications, which used to be carried out in a *lingua franca* like Russian, Serbian-Croatian, and Afrikaans, now use Ukrainian, Kazakh, Slovenian, Zulu, and dozens of others.

International trade, specifically exports, which constituted a small fraction of the gross domestic product of the United States in the early 1960s, now represent a major driving force in this country's economy. The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and World Trade Organization (WTO) are now in place, and American participation is growing through other agreements touching the Western Hemisphere (such as the Free Trade Area of the Americas) and the Pacific Rim (Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation). Language is a major consideration in all these free trade agreements, where even a seemingly obvious issue such as the languages used in product labeling must be negotiated and prescribed.[18]

The globalized economy also entails immensely expanded cross-cultural interactions among representatives of diverse cultures working for large corporations and medium and small businesses. This is particularly true as America attempts to export its *services* to the world, which, in contrast to the export of products, entails significantly different communication and language strategies. On the one hand, the marketing of goods requires human and linguistic interaction up to the point of sale, whereas the sale of services entails such communication on a continuing basis. More to the point, the sale of goods around the world normally involves interactions with business representatives having global experience and, probably, English expertise. By contrast, interaction connected to services sold around the world will not be restricted to the professional English-speaking gatekeepers but will involve many more ordinary citizens who do not speak English.

In addition to the increased number of global interactions with ordinary citizens, globalization means that the kinds of cultures with which Americans must interact are shifting radically. The cultural "safe havens" for Americans and Western Europeans are being replaced rapidly in economic impact by the "truly foreign" cultures of greater Asia, where some Americans are much less comfortable linguistically and culturally. Not only must companies adjust to doing business in Kazakhstan, Japan, Thailand, and Singapore, but the seemingly recognizable task of communicating with "Chinese" frequently must give way to the more complex distinctions of Mandarin, Cantonese, and Taiwanese. Most significant here is that this increased language exposure involves the languages studied least by Americans. We will return to this subject.

Governments and NGOs around the world are cooperating on social issues as never before. Environmental protection, law enforcement, disease control and other health concerns, law of the sea, transportation safety, humanitarian aid, and a host of other *social issues* are now being addressed globally by dozens or even hundreds of nations. This enhanced exposure means that the language experts and tools upon which these agencies and organizations rely must command an expertise encompassing a much broader range of topics and lexicons than was the case earlier when such interactions were much more restricted.

The basic enabler of globalization at the end of the twentieth century has been the remarkable development of communications and information. For language, this means that by the end of the next generation, contact with speakers of other languages will be an everyday occurrence; most importantly, it will take place without the obstacles of time and place. Perhaps the clearest example is the Internet. The number of Internet users has exceeded its originators' wildest expectations, and evidence points clearly to the transformation of the World Wide Web from a basically English environment to one accommodating virtually all the languages of the world. (See Chapter 4.)

With time and place removed, the last barrier, that of language and culture, remains, although the language services industry is making great strides in this regard. Within the next decade, practically every interaction and information transmission will be accompanied by a service to provide translation or interpretation. Technology is even progressing in providing language tools, like speech recognition and machine translation, although it is unlikely that these tools will ever be effective for personal interactions or literary tasks. The ubiquity of language services and tools, however, will likely increase the desire of people to learn each other's language, as interactions among people of all cultures increases at an exponential rate.

This abbreviated litany of the changed circumstances of intercultural communication and language use could easily be expanded. It is offered here merely as a broad perspective on the following discussion. The conclusion is inescapable: globalization entails a major expansion in the educational mission of government, private, and academic institutions in the areas of language and culture. In Chapter 4, we argue that the new conditions of the last decade and the foreseeable future are resulting in national language needs that are qualitatively different from those of the past. Consequently, to prepare citizens for this new global environment, our education and training institutions must offer more languages (and more difficult languages), for more purposes, to a more diverse clientele than ever before. Because the mission of Title VI/F-H is to respond to this new mandate now and in the future, any evaluation of the impact of the legislation must take into account the globalized context.

The Social Context of Language in the United States

What influence do the attitudes and behaviors of American citizens and taxpayers have on the language situation in the United States? As we shall examine in more detail below, it is important to understand that Title VI/F-H operates in a conflicted social context, one in which the linguistic aspects of national security are well appreciated by experts and some members of Congress, while general cultural apathy persists among policy makers and ordinary citizens when it comes to the need for competence in languages other than English. For example:

- The latest available statistics on enrollments at the tertiary level show a reduction in the ratio of modern-foreign-language registrations to postsecondary enrollments since 1965: from 16.5 registrations per 100 enrollments in 1965 to 7.3 in 1980 and 8.0 in 1998[19]
- The percentage of children studying language at the K–12 level is increasing, but it still remains meager: 14 percent in elementary school; 36 percent in middle school and junior high; and 52 percent in high school[20]

On the other hand, Americans value language. A recent Harris/NFLC Poll revealed the following:

- 89 percent of Americans regularly encounter speakers of other languages. Multilingualism is real, even in the United States
- 80 percent of Americans think language is important, at least for business people, teachers, and government employees

The Uniqueness of the Current Study

Since its inception during the Cold War, Title VI/F-H has been the subject of many other studies directed at improving international education in the United States. Those studies have provided rigorous analysis of the programs funded under the legislation and have offered sound recommendations for improvement, many of which have been incorporated into the statute, legislative reports, or regulations. Other substantive insights and recommendations have not been adopted, even though they remain as relevant today as when they were made decades ago.[21] Although there is general consensus in these reports on the need for language competency and the importance of Title VI/F-H, the arguments are frequently unsupported by empirical evidence of sufficient detail and specificity to counter the prevailing attitude in the United States that foreign language is irrelevant in a predominantly English-speaking world. As a result, there has been little change in the behaviors of ordinary citizens and policy makers with regard to language, Title VI/F-H, and national security. At this moment, the language consequences of globalization must be investigated, empirical data must be presented, and the case must be made for the relevance of Title VI/F-H at the interface of academe and the federal government. This report attempts to do just that and to meet the needs of those in the Department of Education responsible for the conduct of Title VI/F-H programs; members of Congress, who ultimately must judge the appropriateness and effectiveness of the programs they support; and academic scholars and administrators in language, area, and international studies who are responsible for the campus language programs funded under the legislation.

The second factor distinguishing this evaluation of Title VI/F-H from most of its predecessors is its exclusive focus on language, to the exclusion of area studies, international studies, and international business studies—the other fields supported by Title VI/F-H. While an argument can be made that this separation runs counter to the whole intent of the legislation, language is without question the most recognizable, concrete, and testable component of international education. From this point of view, it becomes the ideal subject on which to model studies attempting to evaluate the effectiveness of international studies programs. If the determination of national language needs is difficult, *and it is*, a similar specification of national needs in area, international, and international business education is even more problematic in light of the more general nature of those disciplines. In addition, despite the general belief of Americans that most people in the world speak English, the general public is keenly aware of the need for foreign language competence. If the case can be made for or against language as a factor in national security, it will be immediately and broadly understood.

Third, in focusing on national security needs, the report's recommendations will suggest how Title VI/F-H can strengthen the nation's capacity to produce the knowledge and human resources needed to meet language needs. Although academe is only one of the sectors responsible for meeting language demand and needs, Title VI/F-H addresses national capacity through the formal education system. This report therefore concentrates on the role of higher education. There is no attempt to evaluate the contributions of the other sectors, although the recommendations contained in the report certainly assume a synergy among the sectors, especially between academe and the federal government.

Fourth, unlike many other language-oriented studies, this report evaluates the extent to which the language programs funded by Title VI/F-H support national security as defined by the executive and legislative branches of government. There are nevertheless other justifications for supporting the study of language; for instance, its contribution to the understanding of how culture is conveyed, or its liberalizing effect as part of one's general education. Such needs may be better assessed at the local or institutional levels. Because this report focuses on international language needs, it does not address expanding domestic needs for language in, for example, court interpretation, telemarketing, tourism and the like.

Fifth, since the current study attempts for the first time in the era of globalization to provide policy makers, particularly members of Congress, with concrete and relevant information on national language needs, it must be selective in reporting on language supply, demand, capacity, and needs. We make no pretense of offering an exhaustive and comprehensive scholarly study of all aspects of all programs within Title VI/F-H having to do with language.

Sixth, the report operates on the basis of a comprehensive framework of national language needs and capacity. It articulates for the first time the national need for language and specifies the capacity required to meet those needs. Previous studies have merely stipulated the need for language and area studies expertise, leaving it to policy makers to seek evidence on their own or to accept on faith that the need exists. Although need is difficult, and at times impossible, to prove, we will make a substantial effort in this report to provide some clear indication of the scope and nature of the linguistic aspects of national security.

Notes

1. Title VI of the Higher Education Act of 1965 as Amended, 1998—International Education Programs. Part A, Sec. 601: Findings and Purposes.
2. *A National Security Strategy for a New Century*. 1998. Washington, DC: The White House. *A National Security Strategy of Enlargement and Engagement*. 1996. Washington, DC: The White House.
3. National Defense Education Act of 1958, sections 601 and 611.
4. McGroarty, M. 1997. "Language Policy in the U.S.: National Values, Local Loyalties, Pragmatic Pressures." In W. Eggington and H. Wren (eds.), *Language Policy: Dominant English and Pluralist Challenges*, 67–90. Canberra: Language Australia and Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
5. McDonnell, L., S. Berryman, and D. Scott. 1981. *Federal Support for International Studies: The Role of NDEA Title VI*. Prepared for the U.S. Department of Education. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation, 153.
6. National Defense Panel, 1997. *Transforming Defense: National Security in the 21st Century*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 6.
7. See, for example, Fixman, M. 1989. *The Foreign Language Needs of U.S.-Based Corporations*. NFLC Occasional Papers. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center; Riddle, W. 1989. *Foreign Language and International Education: The Federal Role*. A CRS report to Congress, November 20. Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service, Library of Congress; and Berryman, S., P. Langer, J. Pincus, and R. Solomon. 1979. *Foreign Language and International Studies Specialists: The Marketplace and National Policy*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.
8. For a discussion of the truly foreign languages, see Jorden, E. and A. Walton. 1987. "Truly Foreign Languages: Instructional Challenges." In Lambert, R. (ed.), *Foreign*

Language Instruction: A National Agenda. Philadelphia: American Academy of Social Sciences.

9. For requirements in terms of instructional time to reach given proficiency levels in various languages and the Foreign Service Institute's classification of languages based on the difficulty an English L1 speaker faces in acquiring them, see Walker, G. 1989. "The Less Commonly Taught Languages in the Context of American Pedagogy." In H. Lepke (ed.) *Shaping the Future: Challenges and Opportunities,* 111–138. Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.

10. For this calculation, see Brecht, R., D. Davidson, and R. Ginsberg. 1995. "Predictors of Foreign Language Gain during Study Abroad." In B. Freed (ed.), *Second Language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context.* Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins. Note as well that the Federal Interagency Language Roundtable defines the "2" proficiency level (roughly equivalent to the ACTFL Advanced level) as minimal functional proficiency.

11. Branaman, L. and N. Rhodes. 1999. *Foreign Language Instruction in the United States: A National Survey of Elementary and Secondary Schools.* Language in Education 93. McHenry, IL: Delta Systems. For data on language enrollments in K–12, see Draper, J. and J. Hicks. 1996. "Foreign Language Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools, Fall 1994. Summary Report," *Foreign Language Annals* (Fall): 303–306. Draper and Hicks also present a concise history of these enrollments. The clear and unmistakable trend is the growth of enrollments in Spanish at the expense of all other languages. Similarly, the 1995 survey of enrollments in post-secondary education by the Modern Language Association shows growth in Spanish and Chinese at the expense of all other languages. Modern Language Association. 1996. *Fall 1995 Registrations in Foreign Languages: Preliminary Findings.* New York: Modern Language Association. Brecht (1999) hypothesizes that language in higher education is a "mature market" and that the constant 7 to 8 percent of students who take language represent all students so inclined. Furthermore, the roughly 10 percent who take a less commonly taught language form another "mature market." Thus, any growth in registrations by one language occurs within a limited "customer base" and at the expense of other languages. Brecht, R. 1999. "Developing Foreign Language Policy in the United States." Paper presented at the 1999 meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Dallas, TX, November 21.

12. For a review of the research on third language learning, see Brecht, R., V. Frank, and W. Rivers. In preparation. Training Programs for Experienced Language Learners. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center; and Rivers, W. 1996. "Self-Directed Language Learning and Third-Language Learner." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Philadelphia, November 22–24.

13. See Moxon, R., E. O'Shea, M. Brown, and C. Escher. 1998. *Changing U.S. Business Needs for International Expertise.* Seattle: Center for International Business Education and Research, University of Washington School of Business; and Bikson, T. and S. Law. 1994. *Global Preparedness and Human Resources: College and Corporate Perspectives.* Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

14. Brecht, R. 1998. "Experience Another Culture." Unpublished manuscript. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center; Brecht, R. and A. Walton. 1994. "National Strategic Planning in the Less Commonly Taught Languages." *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences*, 532: 190–212.
15. Coalition for International Education. 1996. "Memorandum to Members and Staff of the House Subcommittee on Labor, Health and Human Services and Education Appropriations with reference to FY 1997 Funding for the Higher Education Act, Title VI and Fulbright-Hays 102 (b)(6), International Education and Foreign Language Studies." Unpublished memorandum, May 15, 1996. Washington, DC: Coalition for International Education.
16. Friedman, T. 1999. *The Lexus and the Olive Tree*. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux.
17. See Laitin, D. 1998. *Identity in Formation: The Russian-Speaking Populations in the Near Abroad*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
18. See, for example, *Final Report on the Omnibus Project "Language on Labels."* Ukrainian Surveys and Market Research, Kyiv, January, 1998.
19. Brod, R. and B. Huber. 1997. "Foreign Language Enrollments in United States Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 1995," *ADFL Bulletin*, 28(2), 56–61.
20. Branaman, L. and N. Rhodes. 1999. *Foreign Language Instruction in the United States: A National Survey of Elementary and Secondary Schools*. Language in Education 93. McHenry, IL: Delta Systems.
21. See, for example, Lambert, R. 1973. *Language and Area Studies Review*. Monograph 17. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science; Lambert, R., with E. Barber, M. Merrill, E. Jorden, and L. Twarog. 1984. *Beyond Growth: The Next Stage in Language and Area Studies*. Washington, DC: Association of American Universities; Berryman, S., P. Langer, J. Pincus, and R. Solomon. 1979. *Foreign Language and International Studies Specialists: The Marketplace and National Policy*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation; McDonnell, L., S. Berryman, and D. Scott. 1981. *Federal Support for International Studies: The Role of NDEA Title VI*. Prepared for the U.S. Department of Education. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation; and Parker, W. 1961. *The National Interest and Foreign Languages. A Discussion Guide for the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, Department of State*. 3d ed. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of State, as well as the many references cited in those studies.

CHAPTER 2

Evaluating Language in the National Context

The present evaluation of foreign language in Title VI/F-H comprises *retrospective* and *prospective* parts, each with its own set of research questions. The framework for both parts of the evaluation is presented here. That framework consists of the strategic goals of Title VI/F-H as set forth in the authorizing legislation, the national context of language need and capacity in which Title VI/F-H operates, and the mandates and procedures of the Government Performance and Results Act of 1993 (GPRA), which all U.S. government programs must now meet.

The *retrospective* component of the present study (which is explored further in Chapter 3) represents an assessment of how effective Title VI/F-H has been in meeting its statutory goals related to the teaching and learning of foreign languages. The key question is whether the programs funded under Title VI/F-H have achieved the impact intended by the enabling legislation and, more specifically, whether they have made significant contributions to the national security and economic competitiveness of the United States.

Policy makers also need answers to other questions, such as:

- What substantive contributions have been made under the legislation?
- What factors external to Title VI/F-H could significantly affect the achievement of the goals and objectives of its programs?
- How *critical* are the contributions of Title VI/F-H to meeting national needs? That is, would those needs be met (or met as well) without Title VI/F-H?
- How cost-effective are the programs?

The second component of the study is prospective in orientation and addresses the question of appropriateness: Is the current program *appropriate* to the needs of the United States? Our intent is to assess the current and projected language needs of the country and to make specific recommendations for improving Title VI/F-H. This component of the report (explored in Chapter 4) will address several questions:

- What are the current and projected language needs of the United States?
- Are the goals of the legislation appropriate to those needs?
- What changes are recommended for Title VI/F-H in order to better meet those needs?

In formulating the answer to the last question, we shall be guided by three considerations:

- The record of past performance as specified in the retrospective component of the report
- The assessment of current and projected needs of the United States for language
- The mandate of the GPRA

Although this report will provide evidence of the successes and failures of Title VI/F-H, it will not attempt to document them against a retrospective assessment of national needs for language in the United States. There are several reasons for this approach. First, data for national language needs are not readily available, as we shall see presently, and the difficulty of obtaining useful data increases with time. Second, America's language needs have changed dramatically since the early 1980s, and the current situation places qualitatively different demands on our national capacity to communicate with the peoples of the world. Accordingly, instead of documenting past needs, we have focused attention on the current and projected needs of the nation for language. Doing so is basic to any effort to meet the requirements of the GPRA, which mandates a clear specification of the strategic goals of Title VI/F-H and its constituent programs. That specification provides the rationale for the recommendations for improvement presented at the end of the report.

We have defined the strategic language goals of Title VI/F-H in accordance with Project EELIAS (Evaluation of Exchange, Language, International, and Area Studies), a recently launched project to assist the U.S. Department of Education (USED) in developing a GPRA-based evaluation system for Title VI/F-H.[1] The strategic goals articulated in Project EELIAS were developed in consultation with USED staff and the Title VI/F-H constituency. Those goals constitute the heart of the strategic plan required by the GPRA.

Suggested Strategic Goals for Title VI/F-H

The mission of Title VI/F-H as carried out by the U.S. Department of Education is to support the international aspects of education in the nation's schools, colleges, and universities. We interpret that mission more specifically as follows:

> *To ensure a higher education system that produces—at sufficient levels of quantity and quality—the knowledge, information, and human resources needed to meet the*

nation's requirements for language, area studies, international studies, and international business studies.

For purposes of evaluation, the mission consists of five general strategic goals, presented here as testable propositions.

Knowledge and Information

Title VI/F-H ensures a higher education system that produces vital knowledge and information in the following areas: language and linguistics, area studies (including history, political science, sociology, anthropology, and economics), international studies, and international business studies.

Experts

Title VI/F-H ensures a higher education system that produces experts who conduct research in all areas of international education and who train practitioners and citizens in language, area, international, and international business studies.[2]

Practitioners

Title VI/F-H ensures a higher education system that produces trained practitioners for the globalized era; that is, individuals who employ language and international education knowledge in their professional practice in both the public and private sectors.

Citizens

Title VI/F-H ensures a higher education system that produces a broad cadre of citizens who may not intend to be experts or practitioners but who understand the issues involved in international education as well as the global aspects of national security and economic competitiveness.

Capacity

Title VI/F-H ensures that the supply of knowledge and expertise in language, area, international, and international business studies will be maintained and available at any given time and for any eventuality that might arise.

To evaluate the accomplishment of such broad strategic goals, the rationale for which was presented in Chapter 1, each must be broken down into a set of *strategic objectives* that represent specific actions or activities that can be more easily measured. For example, one of the strategic objectives underlying the citizen-education goal described above might be a significant increase in the number and kinds of students in the education system who are exposed to language and who understand its role and importance in a globalized environment. Another objective could be a larger percentage of teachers at all levels and in all disciplines who have acquired international understanding through the experience of learning and using a language other than English.

Relating Goals to Need and Capacity: The Strategic Market Forces Framework

Implicit in the foregoing list of strategic goals for Title VI/F-H is a general notion of need for language and intercultural competence, and a corresponding capacity to meet that need.

First proposed by Brecht and Walton, the Strategic Market Forces Framework for Language Policy and Planning treats language and intercultural competence as economic commodities affected by the forces of the free market.[3] This economic framework facilitates short-term tactical analyses and long-term strategic decision-making regarding languages and the national interest. Thus, underlying the tangible, tactical variables of *supply* and *demand* are the strategic, long-term variables of *capacity* and *need*.

The model employs the following terms:

- *Demand* refers to the actual current requirements for expertise in a given foreign language
- *Supply* is the available expertise
- *Capacity* represents the capability to supply language expertise to individuals or institutions for tasks that may arise in the foreseeable future
- *Supply and capacity* are spread among five sectors: government, academic, private, heritage, and overseas
- *Need* is the required number of experts, the specific skills, and the determined levels of competency deriving from specific conditions affecting the public good
- *Demand and need* are further broken down into political and military, social, and economic
- *Supply and capacity* are produced and maintained by *language providers*
- *Demand and need* arise among *language consumers*

All market variables in the framework—demand, supply, capacity, and need—can be further characterized in terms of language, mode (interactive, presentational, interpretive), skill (listening, reading, speaking, or writing), proficiency level, criticality and frequency level, task, and subject-matter domain. In the chapters that follow, reference will be made to needs, demand, supply and capacity, all of which should be understood in terms of this framework.

As the arrows in the model indicate, the Strategic Market Forces Model proceeds from the assumption that supply and demand for language and intercultural competence tend toward equilibrium. In the idealized version, it is further assumed that

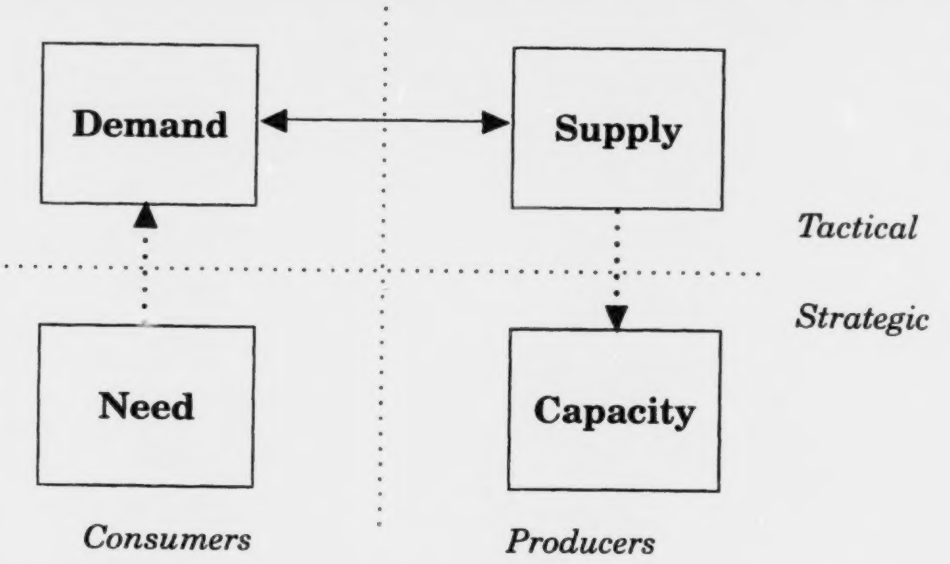

Figure 2.1. Idealized Strategic Market Forces Framework

demand reflects need and determines supply, and that supply meets demand and in turn determines capacity. However, it will be demonstrated in Chapter 4 that the "language market" in the United States does not reflect this ideal model. For example, our national capacity is not structured to meet the actual or projected national security need for language. In particular, need and demand are poorly related, with demand typically not responding to strategic need, and capacity often remaining unaffected by input from supply. Moreover, given the disjunction between need and demand, current demand affects capacity more than does strategic need. In this study we will suggest ways to compensate for those disjunctions so as to better meet the national needs described in Chapter 4.

Program Evaluation Methodology

Overall, the research methodology employed in this report has been guided by current theory in program evaluation, specifically "realistic evaluation" and "dialogic evaluation." Realistic evaluation incorporates a pluralistic approach to data collection and analysis "using strategies, quantitative and qualitative; time scales, contemporaneous or historical; viewpoints, cross-sectional or longitudinal; samples, large or small; [and] goals, action-oriented or audit-centered." The dialogic approach includes extended consultation with all stakeholders in the program being evaluated: the clients being served by the program; local and central program management officers; funders and sponsors; and policy makers interested in language as it relates to national security and economic competitiveness.[4]

The components included in the program evaluation are:

- Goals: the overall goals of Title VI/F-H
- Mechanisms: the 14 programs funded under Title VI/F-H[5]
- Contexts: the language needs of the country
- Outcomes: the documented impact of the programs funded under Title VI/F-H

The GPRA Framework

While operating within the accepted norms of program evaluation, the report accepts the terms of reference specified in the GPRA, which mandates continuous evaluation of programs funded by federal dollars. For the first time in history, federal programs are required by law to document their strategic impact and to provide performance goals and indicators of success in meeting them. Under the law, agencies must state clearly what they intend to accomplish, identify the resources required, and periodically report their progress to the Congress.[6]

The GPRA calls for three concrete products in the evaluation process:

- A *strategic plan* setting out the strategic goals of the program in question
- A *performance plan* detailing the annual performance goals of the program
- A *performance report* that compares results with goals in terms of quantified indicators stated in terms of baselines and benchmarks

A program's strategic plan ought to include "an assessment of the societal conditions, possibly including the economic, social, cultural, demographic, political, legal and technological trends, which set the background for the Department's goals and strategies."[7] We interpret "societal conditions" primarily to include the national need for language, starting from the set of findings and purposes which introduce the authorizing legislation and lay out its rationale.

We further understand the specification of societal conditions to comprehend the notion of program *criticality*: What would happen to the national interest were funding to be withdrawn? This criticality factor can weigh heavily in program evaluation, for a less effective but more critical program would engender an assessment different from one judged to be more effective but less critical.

Another task implied by the requirement to specify societal conditions is the delineation of factors beyond the control of the funded program that may impinge on its performance and impact. This issue—the "locus of responsibility" question—is exceedingly important in judging a federal program with language as a primary concern, given the status of language learning in our nation's schools, colleges, and universities and in society more broadly. As we have noted, many—if not most—Americans are unconvinced that languages other than English are relevant to their lives. If they have thought about it at all, they believe that the learning of another language is simply irrelevant ("the rest of the world speaks English"), basically impossible ("no one really learns a foreign language"), inaccessible or too costly ("you mean it takes years to learn Japanese?!"), or inappropriate ("they don't teach the kind of language that I need").

In the evaluation that follows, we shall focus a good deal of attention on the issues of "criticality" and "locus of responsibility," for these are the extenuating circumstances with which Title VI/F-H has had to contend and, in all likelihood, will continue to encounter.

Performance Measures

The GPRA distinguishes among several categories of measures to be included in annual performance plans and reports. These can be conceived of as a hierarchy of preference (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1. Performance Measures

Category	Definition	Examples
Impact	Degree to which broad social objectives are achieved	• Increased economic competitiveness • Better informed international policy makers • More citizen understanding of global communities
Outcome	Accomplishment of program objectives attributable to program outputs	• Guaranteed supply of experts on all world areas • More linguistically competent practitioners
Output	Direct result of program activities	• Number of students trained in language • Number of languages offered • Levels of linguistic proficiency attained
Activity	Work performed as defined by the 14 Title VI/F-H programs	• Number of intensive language training programs • Number of institutional grants focusing on language program improvement
Inputs	Resources consumed by the organization	• Generally limited to funds and grant years

Source: The definitions in this table are drawn from *Demonstrating Results: An Introduction to the Government Performance and Results Act.* Washington, DC: Department of Education, 1998, 5.

The GPRA states that evidence of outcomes, outputs, and impact should be presented in the form of quantifiable performance measures documenting the effectiveness of the program. Qualitative data is admissible only where numbers are unavailable or irrelevant and, in the strict GPRA process, where congressional permission has been granted. Evidence for impact and strategic outcomes, obviously, is difficult to document, whereas that for outputs is relatively straightforward. For example, the simplest and most indicative *output* of a language program might be the number of students graduating with an attested level of language proficiency. An indicator of the *outcome* of the program, by contrast, will be the number of graduates hired by federal agencies or international businesses because of their language proficiency. An example of *impact* would be some measure of the good that these students do as a result of their language competence in the course of their professional careers. An example might be the comparative value to a company in terms of dollars earned by hiring Title VI/F-H graduates as opposed to non–Title VI/F-H graduates.

Although the distinction between outcome and output is fairly clear, it should not be thought of in bipolar terms—that an indicator expresses *either* an outcome *or* an output. Rather, immediate outputs and strategic outcomes should be understood as a range of results. Strategic outcomes are the most desirable but difficult to document, while immediate outputs are the most readily available.[8] In the present study, for example, indicators of linguistic outputs will be the number of language enrollments in Title VI/F-H programs, these being available in the periodic language surveys of the Modern Language Association (MLA). At the other end of the spectrum, the number of language program managers in federal agencies trained under Title VI/F-H auspices would represent an outcome. The success enjoyed by federal language training programs because of managers trained under Title VI/F-H would be an indication of positive impact on national language needs.

This approach to outcomes and outputs, as adopted in the retrospective component of the report, will be enriched in the prospective part by the GPRA-dictated focus on performance objectives, benchmarks, and baselines. Specifically, the recommendations in Chapter 5 will be phrased in terms of performance and strategic goals. The establishment of performance indicators based on a set of annual benchmarks defined against a baseline is the responsibility of the USED's Title VI/F-H managers and staff. Since this report is the first attempt at implementing a GPRA-oriented assessment of Title VI/F-H, major lacunae remain in the catalogue of indicators called for by the approach. Where data are available, they will be presented in terms of the performance measure levels described in Table 2.1. Where relevant data are not available, recommendations will be made to provide them in the future, particularly in connection with Project EELIAS.

Caveats and Disclosures

Although the current report is guided by the GPRA, it makes no attempt to meet all of the specific requirements of that legislation.

The fact that the GPRA is essentially prospective makes retrospective evaluation of past annual performance goals and reports moot with respect to the GPRA; such goals were not made explicit prior to the implementation of the GPRA, nor were performance indicators defined. However, the broad retrospective assessment of Title VI/F-H undertaken here will provide explicit indicators of its impact. We expect that these results can help establish a baseline from which to evaluate future accomplishments in the GPRA mode. It is our hope and intention that such determinations and recommendations will aid USED in the comprehensive GPRA process.

It should be remembered that language is only one part of the mission of Title VI/F-H, and so the present study cannot be taken as an evaluation of Title VI/F-H as a whole. In addition, this report does not provide a separate assessment of each of the research and training programs of Title VI/F-H.

Finally, this report is intended to deepen the understanding among academics of the relationship between Title VI/F-H and the language needs of the nation and to convey the type of argument and evidence needed for continued or enhanced federal support of language programs.

The methodology employed here is a combination of academically accepted and federally mandated approaches. On the academic side, realistic evaluation mandates a comprehensive and rich data set together with a strong focus on the context, which in this case entails the documentation of national language needs; dialogic evaluation requires that all the stakeholders be included in the evaluation process from the beginning. GPRA provides the mandate, terms of reference and framework to ensure immediate impact of the evaluation on the policy makers responsible for the implementation and funding of Title VI/F-H.

The authors of the current report are employed at the National Foreign Language Center, a not-for-profit institution whose mission is the determination of the nation's needs for language and the specification of the capacity to meet those needs. Accordingly, we believe that language is an issue that needs to be better understood in this country, if for no other reason than to justify the significant public and private investments in language programs. However, we do not assume the needs for language without empirical documentation of those needs. Furthermore, we make no presuppositions about which modes and vehicles are most appropriate and effective for meeting the needs as determined. Finally, while this institutional commitment to the language issue brings with it the added responsibility for objectivity in the present analysis, it also informs the process with years of experience in the language domain and hundreds of contacts with providers and consumers of language expertise.

Data Sources

The sources of data for the current report are:

- Literature on Title VI/F-H, international education, and language needs
- Empirical research carried out explicitly for this project or in tandem with it
- Opinions of experts and policy makers on both the provider and consumer sides of linguistic competence
- Contributions from consumers of linguistic competence in the public and private sectors

The literature consulted in the preparation of this report is catalogued in Appendix 1. The surveys used to generate empirical data appear in Appendixes 2 and 3. The experts consulted, campuses visited, and consumers interviewed are identified in the notes to this chapter.[9]

Notes

1. For full details of EELIAS, see http://www.nflc.org/projects/eelias/index.htm.
2. The distinction between expert and practitioner reflects that first made by Frederick S. Dunn in 1949 when he distinguished "experts as scholars" (those doing research in international studies in universities) and "experts as practitioners" (those formulating international policy in government and business). This reflects John Gardiner's earlier (1948) distinction of experts, adult citizens and college-age citizens. Cited in McCaughey, R. 1985. *International Studies and Academic Enterprise: A Chapter in the Enclosure of American Learning*. New York: Columbia University Press, 127.
3. See Brecht, R. and A. Walton. 1995. "The Future Shape of Language Learning in the New World of Global Communications: Consequences for Higher Education and Beyond." In R. Donato and R. Terry (eds.), *Foreign Language Learning: The Journey of a Lifetime*. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages; and Brecht, R. and A. Walton. 1994. "National Strategic Planning in the Less Commonly Taught Languages," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 532: 190–212.
4. For more on realistic evaluation, see Pawson, R. and N. Tilley. 1997. *Realistic Evaluation*. London and Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. On dialogue-based evaluation, see Nevo, D. 1995. *School Based Evaluation: A Dialogue for Improvement*. Oxford: Pergamon. The assumption here is that each of the constituent programs funded under Title VI/F-H represents an *activity* of the program in GPRA terms and a *mechanism* in realistic evaluation terms. Thus, the activities and mechanisms employed by Title VI/F-H are its constituent programs, as identified and described in the specific titles and sections of the legislation.

5. We note that the 1998 reauthorization of the Higher Education Act added one program, the Technological Innovation and Cooperation for Foreign Information Access Program, which is thus implicitly included in the evaluation. Because the program is brand new, we do not include it explicitly in either the prospective or retrospective evaluations, although the general recommendations made in Chapter 5 apply to it as much as to any other current program.

6. *Demonstrating Results: An Introduction to the Government Performance and Results Act*. 1998. Washington, DC: Higher Education Programs Office, Department of Education, 4–5.

7. *Demonstrating Results*, 6.

8. Rosch, E. 1975. *Basic Objects in Natural Categories.* Berkeley: Language Behavior Research Laboratory, University of California.

9. The authors gathered data in site visits to 32 NRCs on 10 university campuses around the country. The universities and NRCs are identified in Chapter 3, note 55. The authors also interviewed the following providers of private language services: AT&T Language Line Services, Berlitz, Inlingua (Philadelphia and Washington, DC), Globalink, Logos Corporation, Multilingual Communications, and Language Learning Enterprises. Finally, interviews were conducted with consumers of language services. The following agencies participating in the ILR-NFLC Task Force on U.S. Government Language Needs were interviewed:

   Executive Office of Immigration Review

   U.S. Patent and Trademark Office

   Federal Bureau of Investigation

   National Institutes of Health

   DCI Foreign Language Committee

   National Security Agency

   U.S. State Department

   Data has also been obtained from an ongoing survey of the U.S. government's needs for translation and interpretation services. That survey is discussed more fully in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 3

Retrospective Assessment of the Performance of Title VI/F-H

In the past, programs funded under Title VI/F-H have not operated under a system of strategic or annual performance plans. Accordingly, in attempting to apply the terms of reference of the Government Performance and Results Act (GPRA) to a retrospective evaluation of Title VI/F-H, we must take some liberties. We will base our evaluation on the overall *strategic goals* of Title VI/F-H, as specified by Project EELIAS (Evaluation of Exchange, Language, International, and Area Studies; discussed in Chapter 2), adding a set of language-specific objectives which—in our view—follow from those goals. We make no attempt to evaluate the performance of Title VI/F-H against performance goals, for the very good reason that such goals have never been formulated. In other words, we shall take the GPRA framework and project it backwards in time to assess past accomplishments. Our purpose is to arrive at an evaluation of previous programming that can be helpful in guiding future goals and objectives for language within Title VI/F-H.[1]

The difficulties implicit in such a task are obvious. First, with no explicit strategic plan and no assessment of the needs that such a plan was meant to address, we are left to rely on the legislation and regulations, which are much less explicit than the mandates of the GPRA process. The language-specific objectives and indicators introduced here are not officially approved by the U.S. Department of Education (USED), but they have been derived in consultation with the EELIAS Project and with scholars and policy makers from around the country.

Second, since we are retroactively reengineering the goals and objectives of programs, it should come as no surprise that many of the data we require simply do not exist. For example, the clearest effects of language training on national security are the professional use to which languages are put, the effect of communication on the accomplishment of professional tasks, and the importance of such tasks for the national good. Unfortunately, practically no long-term data are available on the career paths of graduates of Title VI/F-H programs.[2] Moreover, no information exists on the effect of language ability on professional performance. This situation has to be partially rectified, as will be recommended below, by consistently collecting data on the relevant professional activities of alumni of Title VI/F-H programs. Obviously, until the GPRA process is fully implemented, we shall have to operate as best we can with the data that exist.

Third, and most importantly, it is to be expected that performance measures will vary widely, from the strategic to the immediate: impacts, outcomes, outputs, activities, and inputs. To the extent possible, the measures presented below will be of *impact* and *outcomes* and will be quantified. However, it must be said that such strategic performance measures in general, and for language in particular, are very difficult to provide. For example, it is very difficult, in evaluating professional performance, to separate language ability from the other factors that contribute to success or failure. In doing business, for example, such factors might include substantive knowledge of the domain, interpersonal skills, general communication skills, and cross-cultural communication skills.[3] The contribution of any training, knowledge, or expertise provided by Title VI/F-H is thus clouded by several exogenous factors. First, the role of language and intercultural knowledge in the professional world, be it business, government, or nongovernmental organizations, is unclear. Second, Title VI/F-H is generally not tasked with developing professional intercultural skills, with the exception of the Part B Centers for International Business Education (CIBE) program and the Part C Institute for International Public Policy (IIPP) program. In spite of these difficulties, the evaluation requires us to offer indicators that we believe to be valid and reliable. The performance measures described below are therefore to be interpreted as indicators of the effect of Title VI/F-H, not as proof or even as statistically rigorous indications of causality. In some cases proof may be impossible to demonstrate; in others the data required to document proof are lacking at the present time.

A third factor complicating the assessment of the linguistic contribution of Title VI/F-H to the national good is the relatively small share of total investment in the national language enterprise that Title VI/F-H represents. Only if one excludes French, German, and Spanish in the tabulation and focuses exclusively on the less commonly taught languages (LCTLs), which represent approximately 10 percent of language enrollments nationally, does the contribution of Title VI/F-H amount to a substantial portion of the national investment. We shall have much more to say about this below.

Finally, we do not propose here to conduct a program-by-program assessment but rather to evaluate the overall impact of Title VI/F-H on the language needs of the nation. Language education is only part of the comprehensive mission of Title VI/F-H and, accordingly, several programs do not have language *per se* as a strategic objective, even though language is an obligatory component in all Title VI/F-H programs.[4]

With these stipulations in mind, we shall operate, to the extent possible, within the GPRA framework. In addition, we shall provide, where possible, some indication of the *criticality* of Title VI/F-H: What evidence exists that a language function, critical to the nation, would not be accomplished were it not for the programs funded under Title VI/F-H?

Strategic Objectives of the Language Component of Title VI/F-H

A set of language-specific strategic objectives for each of the five Title VI/F-H strategic goals is presented below. The objectives reflect the findings and goals expressed in the Title VI/F-H legislation, the work of EELIAS, and the past practice of Title VI/F-H programs.

For each of the five goals of Title VI/F-H, we shall attempt to answer the following research questions:

- What contributions (outcomes and impact) have the programs funded by Title VI/F-H made in each of the five areas? What effect have the programs had on research? On programs? On policy?
- Have these contributions been made in a cost-effective manner?
- How critical have the contributions of Title VI/F-H been? Would the knowledge and human resources have been made available without Title VI/F-H?
- To what extent does the responsibility to meet these goals fall under Title VI/F-H?

Again, we do not pretend here to provide comprehensive answers to these research questions, nor will we answer each question for all of the goals. We shall, however, let the available data determine where and how well the necessary research questions have been addressed, so as to provide a general sense of the success of the language-related programs of Title VI/F-H.

Goal 1—Knowledge and Information

To guarantee adequate knowledge and information to meet the current and future needs of the country with respect to language and cross-cultural communication.

Programs under Title VI/F-H, particularly International Research and Studies (IRS), National Resource Centers (NRC), and Language Resource Centers (LRC), and Centers for International Business Education (CIBE) are responsible for providing support in the development of:

- *Understanding of the linguistic and cognitive bases of language learning and teaching.* Basic research is vital to the applied enterprise described below. Without it, many of the tools and designs for language teaching and learning would not exist. By the same token, however, to be useful in meeting national language needs, basic research must find application in curriculum design, materials development, and teacher training. This knowledge is the result of research conducted by scholars in a range of disciplines (e.g., anthropology, psychology, general and applied linguistics) as well as in each of the specific language fields
- *Linguistic descriptions.* Training of Americans in foreign language depends on basic linguistic descriptions of the languages of the world including all aspects of their structure (phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic) as well as on empirical studies of their use. Such descriptions and studies serve as the basis for grammars, dictionaries, and textbooks—all of which are required for the teaching and learning of language
- *Research and development of practical teaching and learning resources.* Research in the second language acquisition (SLA) field of applied linguistics provides the basic information needed in the design of language-learning environments as well as the practical tools for learning and teaching. Such research is carried out by SLA generalists and by language-specific SLA scholars
- *Policy studies and implementation.* Given the relatively modest state of language study in the United States, research and development in language policy are crucial to the improvement of language capacity in the United States. Data and information on national needs and capacity are crucial if language-policy formulation and planning are to play a larger role in meeting the language needs of the country

The programs targeted at this goal are NRC, LRC, IRS, and CIBE.

Goal 2—Experts

To ensure an adequate supply of experts for current and future language and cross-cultural communication needs.

Title VI/F-H is intended to ensure that the higher education system, and in particular its graduate programs, produce and maintain the cadre of researchers and teachers who enable Americans to learn and use the languages of the world. Training for those experts is supported by various programs under Title VI/F-H, including the NRC, LRC, Foreign Language and Area Studies (FLAS), and Fulbright-Hays programs. The experts include:

- *Researchers.* Descriptive and applied linguists specialize in particular languages or language families, building upon the work of theoretical linguists, anthropologists, sociologists, philosophers, psychologists, computer scientists, and other scholars in the cognitive sciences. These language-specific experts produce the detailed descrip-tions (grammars, dictionaries, thesauri) of the languages as well as studies of how languages are acquired and taught. They also frequently produce teaching and learning materials, curricula, and teacher-training programs in their fields

- *Scholar-pedagogues.* Working in graduate programs or conducting teacher develop-ment programs and workshops, scholars and pedagogues train the succeeding generation of experts as well as practicing teachers
- *Teachers.* Professional teachers, full- or part-time, devote their time and effort to teaching professional practitioners and citizens the language skills they require in their professional and personal lives
- *Developers.* The language tools and services industry that emerged only a few years ago now represents a multibillion dollar enterprise worldwide. Proprietary companies invest millions of dollars in product development in the fields of translation, interpretation, machine translation, voice recognition, multilingual computing, and global Internet communications. The designers and developers of these products represent a vital component of the national expertise in language

The programs targeted at this goal include NRC, CIBE, American Overseas Research Centers (AORC), Doctoral Dissertation Research Abroad (DDRA), Faculty Research Abroad (FRA), and Faculty Semesters Abroad (FSA).

Goal 3—Professional Practitioners

To ensure the cross-cultural communications and language capability of professional practitioners in the public and private sectors.

Title VI/F-H supports institutions of higher education in producing linguistically competent professional practitioners across all domains of society:

- *Political/military.* The largest employer of professional practitioners whose job description includes language use is the federal government. The Department of Defense (DOD) alone is active in about 100 countries. In addition to military bases, the DOD presence includes military attachés, peacekeeping forces, and humanitarian assistance groups.[5] The diplomatic requirements are self-evident
- *Social.* [Managers and staff of approximately 70 agencies of the federal government are engaged in tasks that require some knowledge of language.] Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and representatives of most professions face increasing language needs in their day-to-day operations, as almost every social issue ranging from disease control to global warming now has an international aspect

- *Economic and business.* The globalization of the economy and of employment guarantees that almost all business is partially or wholly international, as are all financial institutions and programs. The resulting level of information transmission and human interaction in business and finance is growing with the technology of communication. While empirical evidence for this growth is still lacking, it is logical to assume that the need for professional practitioners skilled in cross-cultural communication and language skills is growing

The practitioners in these domains are supported in some way by virtually all of the Title VI/F-H programs, with the CIBE and Business and International Education (BIE) programs devoted to the business professionals and IIPP devoted to the preparation of experts in international policy.

Goal 4—An Internationally Aware Citizenry

To support the mission of the educational system to provide a broad base of citizens trained in language and aware of the global aspects of our nation's well-being.

Title VI/F-H has a broad mission to contribute to the higher education of all students, not just experts and professional practitioners. That mission comprises two specific targets:

- *Citizen awareness.* Although less instrumental in its nature than the other goals of Title VI/F-H, the citizen education component has roots in national security and economic competitiveness as well as the more general educational mission of USED. No one seriously challenges the assertion that foreign language education is beneficial, even if it is not used for some specific purpose. Title VI/F-H has the responsibility to support programs aimed at exposing a broader range and greater number of Americans to foreign language instruction at both the K–12 and postsecondary levels in hopes of building a citizenry that is more understanding and supportive of the global activities of the private and public sectors
- *Encouraging specialization.* Although more than 30 million residents of this country speak a language other than English at home, most Americans have little appre-ciation or understanding of, let alone ability in, languages other than English. This general disregard for language ability is reflected in the small percentage of U.S. students who take foreign language courses relative to most other developed countries. Title VI/F-H assumes the responsibility of spreading the language learning experience more broadly among students in order to broaden the base from which experts and professional practitioners will come

The programs that address this goal most directly are the NRCs, with their outreach programs, as well as BIE and Undergraduate International Studies and Foreign Language (UISFL).

Goal 5—Capacity

To build and maintain the nation's capacity to produce the knowledge and human resources required to meet the language needs of the nation into the foreseeable future.

Guaranteeing the availability of adequate knowledge and human resources in language is a critical burden for Title VI/F-H. The concept of "national capacity," however, is difficult to elaborate. In our view, the definition of language capacity involves two distinct notions, *sector* and *field*, each with a corresponding objective.

Sector

To strengthen the academic sector as the base of national capacity and promote integration with the federal, private, heritage, and overseas sectors.

The system that houses the expertise and provides the training for language comprises five distinct sectors: academic, federal, private, heritage, and overseas.[6] The *academic sector* houses many of the programs and most of the resources and expertise available to support language learning in the United States. The *federal sector* has many language training programs as well as a significant research capability. A recent study has estimated that the Defense Language Institute's (DLI) Foreign Language Center in Monterey, California, alone accounts for 13 percent of all college-level classroom language instruction in the United States, and the School of Language Studies of the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) accounts for another 2 percent.[7] The *private sector*, originally focused primarily on on-demand language instruction, is now heavily invested in the language services and tools industry. The *heritage sector* represents the more than 30 million home speakers of languages other than English—considered by many as this country's greatest natural resource in language competence, particularly in the LCTLs. Finally, the *overseas sector* comprises the many in-country language training programs, exchange programs, and publishers of language-learning materials, as well as the governmental and private foundations established to promote a particular language around the world.

Field

To build field architecture, including base and infrastructure elements, as well as maintain and enhance flagship programs.

The capacity to deliver instruction in language is largely dependent upon the strength of the profession or field that supports that language. The architecture of each field can be seen to comprise base structures, infrastructure elements, and flagship programs. Base structures consist of the field's expertise and research resources, a national organization supporting the field and its members, a strategic plan for development, and—ideally—a national communication and resource-sharing system. The infrastructure elements include: teacher training programs, publications capability, study abroad and exchange programs, national and regional conferences, established connections to target cultures, reliable funding sources, and so on. Finally, the field architecture comprises a national set of flagship programs that house the expertise and cutting-edge programming in the field.

Performance Measures for the Language Component of Title VI/F-H

Knowledge and Information

Basic research, applied research, and materials development are carried out under the IRS, NRC, and LRC programs (Sections 606, 602(a), and 603 of Title VI), as well as under the CIBE program (Section 612). Each of these programs has as one of its strategic objectives the production of research needed to support the learning and teaching of languages in the United States. Work funded under these programs includes:

- Basic research on SLA and linguistics in the LCTLs
- Research on the effects of study abroad and the special aspects of learning involved in the immersion mode of language learning
- Research on learner styles
- Research and development of proficiency testing guidelines and instruments, alternative means of testing, and alternative assessment instruments
- Development of innovative language learning programming
- Development of pedagogical materials, including textbooks and readers
- Development of practical language-use tools, like dictionaries and grammars
- Surveys of language enrollments in the educational system at all levels
- Studies of international education in general and evaluations of Title VI/F-H programs in particular
- Federal program evaluation

Quantitative measures of the impact of these products of Title VI/F-H funding are difficult to provide. In terms of *output*, one might count textbooks produced. As an *outcome*, one might consider the number of programs adopting those textbooks as well as the number of students who use them. Any such number would be deceiving, however, because Title VI/F-H devotes resources to materials development primarily in the least commonly taught languages, and the number of students enrolled is relatively small. Nevertheless, the impact of the funding could still be significant in terms of *criticality* and *locus of responsibility*, in light of the fact that few, if any, of the students would have had access to an adequate textbook without Title VI/F-H funding. As a further caveat, any count of materials produced and used would reveal nothing about the effectiveness or quality of such materials.

In spite of these difficulties, we adduce some quantifiable evidence on the outcomes of Title VI/F-H programming in support of knowledge and information enhancement. To provide some assessment of impact, we shall also offer selected case studies.

Basic Research in SLA and Linguistics Research in the LCTLs

The overall contribution of Title VI/F-H to research in pure linguistics and SLA is relatively minor. The field of SLA is large, and the resources allocated to basic research are modest. Although the LRC program is aimed at least in part at basic SLA research, the magnitude of the task and the limited funding available oblige us to conclude that Title VI/F-H is not the principal *locus of responsibility* for broad-based SLA research in the United States. However, the record regarding research in SLA in the LCTLs is clear.

Much of the empirical research in general SLA is done using data from the field of English as a second language (ESL). The ESL data are gathered from research subjects readily available on the nation's university campuses.[8] The applicability of ESL results to foreign language learning and SLA, especially in the noncognate languages, is not universally accepted, however. Accordingly, the promotion of research directly on foreign language study, particularly in the case of "truly foreign" languages and other LCTLs, is an important contribution of Title VI/F-H to SLA research in the United States.

The clearest indicator of the contribution of Title VI/F-H is the proportion of research in SLA and related topics involving LCTLs published by authors at Title VI/F-H NRCs and LRCs. We searched for publications on research in SLA and related topics (including sociolinguistics, descriptive linguistics, and language policy) in the Languages Learning and Behavior Abstracts (LLBA) online bibliographic database. The LLBA database was chosen because it provides as part of each citation the home institution of the first-listed author of the publication.

Twenty-five LCTLs in all categories were covered. The abstracts examined included those of journal articles, books, textbooks, chapters in books, and dissertations. The languages sampled were Russian, Chinese, and Japanese, all with postsecondary enrollments in 1995 between 20,000 and 50,000; Arabic, Modern Hebrew, and Korean, with enrollments from 1,000 to 10,000; Polish and Kiswahili, with enrollments of approximately 1,000; Hindi, Farsi, and Thai, with enrollments between 500 and 1,000; Czech, Indonesian, and Yoruba, with enrollments between 250 and 500; Armenian, Cantonese, Hausa, and Tamil, with enrollments between 100 and 250; and Bulgarian, Georgian, Lao, Malay, Marathi, Mongolian, and Nyanja, with enrollments below 100. Book reviews were excluded from the sample.

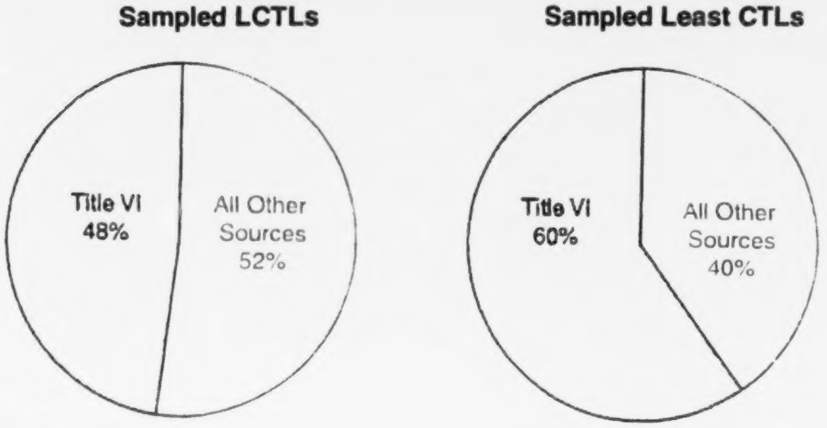

Figure 3.1. SLA and Linguistics Research in the LCTLs

Our sampling of the research published from 1992 to 1995 shows that Title VI/F-H NRCs and LRCs contributed almost half (48 percent) of all published research. This contribution increases to more than 60 percent of the research published on the least commonly taught languages.

Turning from research *outputs* to questions of *outcomes* and strategic *impact*, one could track the number of citations in the literature to studies funded by Title VI/F-H, but such a number would have significance only to the extent that one believed that the subsequent literature had an impact on the language situation nationally. However, if one believes that research conducted on LCTLs is an important perspective to be added to that on ESL and Spanish and French, then the *criticality* of the Title VI/F-H contribution becomes obvious. We will examine the question of criticality in the following discussions of language learning in study abroad, learning styles and preferences, and testing and assessment, all important current issues in SLA research.

What impact has the research funded by Title VI/F-H had on these issues? If the impact is significant, it may be reasonable to conclude that the small investments made under Title VI/F-H have been cost-effective.

Language Learning during Study Abroad. It is generally understood that true functional competence in a foreign language is nearly impossible to achieve without a sojourn abroad, particularly if the language is "truly foreign."[9] Goodwin and Nacht (1988) report that "mastery of a modern language has traditionally been perceived as the most direct educational benefit of study abroad."[10] In 1990, a grant from the IRS program to the American Council of Teachers of Russian (ACTR) and the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) funded the organization of the largest empirical database in the world on language gain in study abroad as well as a comprehensive, in-depth analysis of the factors that predict success in study abroad. The database contains biographic, demographic, language learning, and language proficiency data on participants in ACTR language study programs in the former Soviet Union. The study, published as *Predictors of Foreign Language Gain during Study Abroad*, by Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsberg, aimed to determine which learners are more successful during study abroad and why.[11] The results of the project, widely disseminated in this country and abroad, served as a basis for additional funding from private foundations and spawned several important initiatives, including those described below. (Appendix 2 provides a bibliography of the studies produced as a result of the *Predictors* study.)

A research project on language gain and learning behavior in study abroad, housed at ACTR with the cooperation of the NFLC and the Russian Department at Bryn Mawr College, is producing a broad range of both quantitative and qualitative studies on the subject.[12] Research questions outside the area of study abroad have been added to the project as well. For example: What does the proficiency level of the students in the applicant pool say about outputs of Russian language programs in the United States? What variables are correlated with proficiency levels in this pool? What are alumni of study abroad programs doing with their language skills, and what impact have they had on the Russian field in the United States and on national needs for Russian language proficiency? The last project is also funded under the IRS program and promises to be the first in-depth study of language utilization by highly proficient language learners in the United States. This latter project, then, represents the first study of the *impact* of national supply on national demand and needs.

Additional research on the evaluation of immersion programs in the military, conducted under the aegis of the DLI Foreign Language Center, descends from the original *Predictors* research.[13]

The National Security Education Program (NSEP), which funds language study abroad for graduate and undergraduate students, has been a pioneer in requiring pre- and post-testing of its participants as a component of its self-evaluation.[14] The design for the testing and analysis was done by the NFLC as a direct result of its experience with the ACTR study abroad data project. In addition, the NFLC has developed evaluation programs for the immersion language learning activities of the U.S. Air Force Foreign Area Officer Program.

These projects, based on a study supported by Title VI/F-H, have come together to form the largest data set in the world on language learning in natural environments, providing a vital counterbalance to the focus on classroom research. For the first time, using this database, empirical research can be conducted that offers important insights on study abroad and immersion language learning, the most relied upon learning environments in SLA.

Learning Styles and Preferences. Title VI/F-H has seeded important research in the areas of learning styles and task-based learning, through direct grant support to researchers and through support of leading centers of such research, in particular Georgetown University and the University of Minnesota.[15] The research on learning styles, however, derives from a discourse in cognitive studies predating Title VI/F-H, and much of the basic research in learning styles for language learners has evolved in ESL and abroad, where support from Title VI/F-H is irrelevant.

Programs and Materials Research and Development

One of the goals of Title VI/F-H is to support the development of language programming and of teaching and learning materials, primarily through the IRS program and the centers operated under the CIBER, LRC, and NRC programs. Below we present two case studies of the impact of Title VI/F-H on the development of teaching and learning materials for all languages offered in the United States.

Case 1: The Proficiency Movement in Language Teaching in the United States. Language study before the 1960s was characterized by the firm dominance of grammar and reading (through the so-called "grammar-translation" approach). This philological tradition, with its focus on reading and literary texts, basically ignored the spoken language. In the 1950s and 1960s, in part as a result of the communications needs provoked by World War II, speaking and listening skills came into vogue, but the methodology employed relied on rote skill development through repetition of pattern drills.[16] Borrowing heavily from the government language school tradition, academic programming, under the leadership of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), gradually embraced a new approach based on actual ability to perform communication tasks. That approach became known as the "proficiency movement." It led to the first national proficiency metric in American education for language performance ability, which changed the way languages were taught and learned in the United States. The impact of this movement on the language competence of Americans cannot be overestimated, as virtually every language teacher in this country's schools, colleges, and universities has come to think—if not necessarily to operate—in terms of language proficiency and the national standards and assessment instruments that proficiency implies. The focus is firmly on four skills, including speaking and listening, and not just reading and writing. The proficiency orientation further emphasizes study abroad, which is required for a functional mastery of any foreign language.[17]

By funding much of the fundamental work that led to the development of proficiency guidelines and tests, Title VI/F-H played the *critical* role in the proficiency movement, which is perhaps the most important development in the history of the language profession in the United States.[18] Primarily through the IRS program, Title VI/F-H was the principal supporter of ACTFL's development of the initial proficiency guidelines, subsequent revisions, guidelines for K–12 foreign language proficiency, proficiency guidelines in specific languages (Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Russian, Persian, Hindi, French, Spanish, and German, among others), and proficiency tests for listening, reading, and speaking in several languages. Even today, by supporting the new ACTFL performance guidelines for K–12 learners, Title VI/F-H is breaking new ground by "focusing on second language use by students who participate in elementary, middle and high school foreign language programs" and setting forth "characteristics of language users at the various stages or benchmarks of learning and development."[19]

It can fairly be said that the investment of Title VI/F-H in the proficiency and standards movement of the language field has produced significant reform in language programming and has had immense impact on the quality of language instruction in the nation's schools and colleges.

Case 2: Development of Pedagogical Materials, Including Textbooks and Readers. Very little financial support is available for the production of learning resources used by just a few students across the country. Therefore, we shall again focus on the *criticality* of the Title VI/F-H investments in the LCTLs.

A principal theme of the National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages (NCOLCTL), an organization representing the national teachers' organizations of the LCTLs, has been the lack of teaching and learning materials, particularly in the least commonly taught languages. From its first informal meeting in 1986, the members of NCOLCTL have sought ways to maximize investment in the development of materials either by setting the standards for resource development or by building a system to maximize the sharing of materials.[20] The overwhelming need for teaching and learning resources was confirmed by a NFLC survey of NCOLCTL members, conducted for this report. More than half of the respondents replied that current materials were of intermediate or poor quality; less than 20 percent of respondents in the least commonly taught languages replied that good quality learning and teaching materials were available. See Appendix 3.1 for the survey instrument.[21]

This picture clearly indicates a problem. But should Title VI/F-H be held responsible for this aspect of national capacity? What contributions has Title VI/F-H made to solving the problem, and how critical are those investments?

In a survey conducted at the 1998 annual conference of the NCOLCTL, leading pedagogues in 18 less and least commonly taught languages were asked to list the three primary postsecondary teaching materials in their languages. The survey returned the names of some 94 textbooks, reference grammars, and other teaching materials currently in use in the less and least commonly taught languages in the United States. This list was compared to the lists of projects funded under the IRS program.[22] Of the 94 items, 26 (28 percent) were produced with

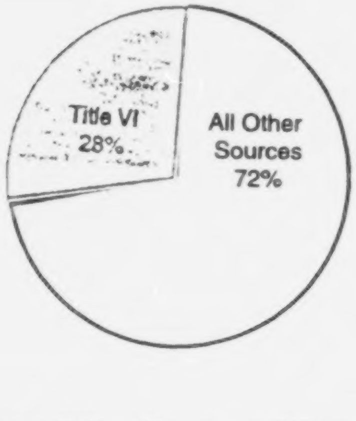

Figure 3.2. Source of Funding for LCTL Learning Materials

IRS funding. *All* of the cited materials in Arabic, Sinhala, and Thai and half of the Hindi and Tagalog materials were developed with Title VI/F-H funding.[23] The survey instrument appears in Appendix 3.2.

The fact that 72 percent of materials were not supported by Title VI/F-H reveals important issues. For example, the more common LCTLs (Chinese, Japanese, and Russian) enjoy some commercial support, though not at a level approaching that available for Spanish and French. Moreover, that support dissipates at advanced levels, where materials are desperately needed but where the small numbers of students can not attract commercial support.

The same phenomenon can be seen in a recent survey of schools that train professional practitioners, in this case foreign service officers. Language faculty in Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, and Russian at member institutions of the Association of Professional Schools of International Affairs (APSIA) reported a deficit of advanced-level materials in all languages.[24]

Although more than 600 separate materials-development projects have been funded by the IRS program, the vast majority are now more than 10 years old and therefore are dated in both their cultural content and, often, in their pedagogy.[25]

The studies discussed above are indicative of the situation with regard to resources for the LCTLs. First, for the *least* commonly taught languages, Title VI/F-H support for materials development is *critical*: without it, the fields would be in significantly poorer shape with regard to instructional materials. Second, the need for materials persists and is even growing, given the rapidly evolving language situation in the world and the need for cultural materials to be up to date. Even among the more common of the LCTLs, the reliance on commercial funding for Chinese, Japanese, and Russian learning materials leaves these languages in short supply of materials for advanced level courses, where enrollments even in these languages are quite low.

Given the scope of the problem (the number of languages and the constant need for updating materials), no federal program can be held responsible for solving the problem on its own. The relatively low funding levels for the IRS program, and the program's broadened requirements to fund research in other areas (area studies, surveys and assessment studies, SLA) mean that IRS can now play only a marginal role—just when the need is greatest. As we will show in Chapter 5, efforts are underway to implement systems of resource sharing among programs. Those efforts are based on finding, cataloguing, and making available on demand existing resources for all languages. Once this is done, the task will be to identify lacunae and to guarantee that investments are made in resources that will be broadly used in the field. To continue to be effective, the research-support efforts of Title VI/F-H will have to be carefully targeted to producing quality resources according to fieldwide standards, and thus promoting universal acceptance and use.

Policy Studies

National Surveys and Their Impact on Foreign Language Education Policy. A perennial function funded by Title VI/F-H (from both the IRS and the UISFL programs) has been the collection of national enrollment data in postsecondary education and in the K–12 system. The postsecondary surveys have been carried out periodically by the Modern Language Association since 1952.[26] The data from those surveys, together with data collected by the MLA during the 1950s on enrollments in language at the K–12 level, were instrumental in calling attention to the sad state of foreign language education in the postwar years.[27] In the late 1970s, the data contributed to the establishment of the President's Commission on Language and International Studies, headed by the late James Perkins. More recently, also with support from Title VI/F-H, ACTFL has periodically surveyed K–12 enrollments.[28] A recently completed project by the Center for Applied Linguistics includes data on the number of language programs in our nation's schools. It also focuses on the state of the teaching of foreign languages in the K–12 system, including information on types of programs, teacher qualifications, teacher background, and institutional support.[29] Surveys of these types continue to be cited universally and serve as the basis of federal, state, and local legislative decisions.

The criticality of Title VI/F-H here is evidenced by the fact that no such studies emerge without its support. The problem is that these surveys are sporadic: the latest enrollment data for language in higher education are from 1998. Given the reliance of the language profession and policy makers on these data, they should be produced regularly and more frequently, and Title VI/F-H is—and should be—clearly responsible for this important national service.

Program Evaluation. Over the years Title VI/F-H has funded several studies the purpose of which was to evaluate the impact of one or more of its constituent programs. (The present study is an example.) Such studies are filled with data and information on the programs of Title VI/F-H, which can be of general use to policy makers in the public sector and in education. Among the most recent are the evaluation of the UISFL program conducted by Barbara Burn of the University of Massachusetts, Amherst; the evaluation of the Doctoral Dissertation Research Abroad (DDRA) carried out by Mary Ellen Lane of the Council of American Overseas Research Centers; and the evaluation of the impact of the FLAS program, performed by Maria Pennock Roman of the Pennsylvania State University. A full set of references to other evaluative studies of Title VI/F-H can be found in Appendix 1.

The impact of these studies is at best diffuse. Presumably they should produce changes in program management or in the design of Title VI/F-H, so that funded programs would perform better. Such changes can be undertaken only by Congress, however, and the regular authorization and appropriations processes call on several stakeholders—USED, the Title VI/F-H constituencies, and Congress itself—with the effect of attenuating or mediating the effect of a given study. One measure of the impact of earlier studies, such as those of Lambert (1974), Berryman et al. (1979), and McDonnell (1981, 1983), is whether the recommendations contained in these studies found their way into statute or regulation. Few of the recommendations made in 1974, 1979, or 1983 found their way into Title VI/F-H immediately. For example, Lambert's study called for the establishment of centers for language research and materials development.

> *One can conceive, however, of some of the functions of language and area studies being performed at a center or centers for research and training concerned with various parts of the world, either totally separate from universities or as partially interlinked, semi-academic institutions . . . . In particular, such a center or centers might most naturally pick up some of the national overhead functions I have mentioned throughout my discussion of the various sizes and types of centers.* (413-414)

Lambert's recommendation was partially adopted with the creation of the LRCs in the 1990 reauthorization. The designation of centers focusing on specific world areas occurred only in the 1998 reauthorization, however, some 24 years after Lambert's study was published.

The most recent effort at program evaluation is without question its most ambitious: to establish a permanent online data collection and analysis system to support the ongoing evaluation of all Title VI/F-H programs in compliance with the GPRA. Discussed in Chapter 2, Project EELIAS is unprecedented in its scope and methodology and is considered a possible model of program evaluation for international studies, particularly in the federal government.

Our tentative conclusion is that program evaluations have had only minimal impact on Title VI/F-H. More recent studies (and some that are ongoing) have not yet had any impact, although it is hoped that the evaluative data they provide, particularly the data that emerge from Project EELIAS, will form the groundwork for the GPRA process for Title VI/F-H.

Conclusion (Knowledge and Information)

Title VI/F-H has had a significant impact on basic research in the LCTLs, including SLA and descriptive linguistics, and in applied research in the form of learning and teaching materials. It has had broader impact on curricular reform and SLA research, and on putting the case of language in education before policy makers and the American people. However, the full impact of Title VI/F-H programs on the commonly taught languages and on basic research in SLA in general has to be significantly less, given the size of these fields and the modest amounts of Title VI/F-H funding available. Finally, the *criticality* of these programs for the LCTLs is clear.

Experts

The training of language experts has always been a priority of Title VI/F-H.

> *The security, stability, and economic vitality of the United States in a complex global era depend upon American experts in and citizens knowledgeable about world regions, foreign languages, and international affairs, as well as upon a strong research base in these areas. (Title VI—International Education Programs. Part A, Sec. 601: Findings and Purposes.)*

Researchers

Assuming that graduate enrollments in language programs on our nation's campuses represent the supply of future experts (researchers, scholar/pedagogues, and teachers) as well as some professional practitioners, one may judge the contribution of Title VI/F-H to the base of language expertise in the United States.

The MLA survey of language enrollments in two and four-year colleges and universities in fall 1995 revealed that only 64 institutions in the United States had language programs supported in some way by Title VI/F-H. Those 64 universities represent 2.66 percent of the 2,399 colleges and universities in this country offering language instruction. Remarkably, however, this minute proportion of institutions accounts for almost three-fifths (59 percent) of graduate enrollments in languages other than French, German, Spanish, and Italian. (In the main, the first three languages have been supported by school systems and institutions of higher education in this country, although the role of Title VI/F-H with these languages has not been insignificant.) If one focuses on the least commonly taught languages, omitting the 10 languages with the highest enrollments (Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Hebrew, Italian,

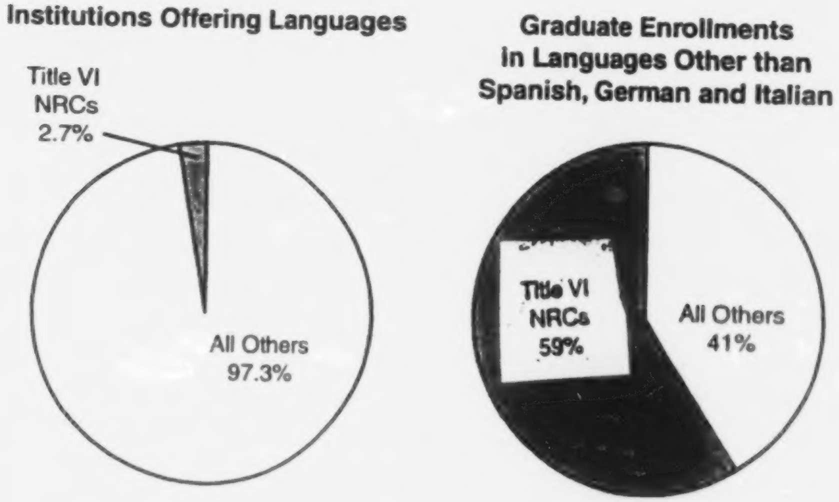

Figure 3.3. Importance of NRCs in Postsecondary Language Enrollments

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Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish), the 64 Title VI–supported institutions account for *81 percent of graduate language enrollments nationwide.*[30]

In addition to the fact that most graduate students in the LCTLs are receiving their training in Title VI/F-H–supported institutions, there are other indications that Title VI/F-H has been instrumental in building and maintaining the expertise base of language fields.

From 1982 to 1995, Title VI/F-H NRCs supplied a growing proportion of the PhDs in the LCTLs, while the number of NRCs remained relatively constant. Dissertations included in our search of the Dissertations Online database for the period 1982 to 1995 did not include those in literature or area studies (Figure 3.4).[31]

A study by Pennsylvania State University found that FLAS fellowship recipients accounted for 32 percent of all PhDs awarded in the LCTLs. In the *least* commonly taught languages, the percentage rises to 60 percent; in Chinese, 53 percent, in Japanese, 40 percent.[32]

In a 1986 survey of teachers of African languages worldwide, David Dwyer of Michigan State University found that 52.5 percent of the United States' and 11 percent of the *world's* experts on African languages worked at Title VI/F-H–supported institutions.[33]

Admittedly, these figures represent *output* rather than impact in GPRA terms, but they point unambiguously to Title VI/F-H and the institutions it supports as the foundation of this nation's capacity for producing experts in the LCTLs.

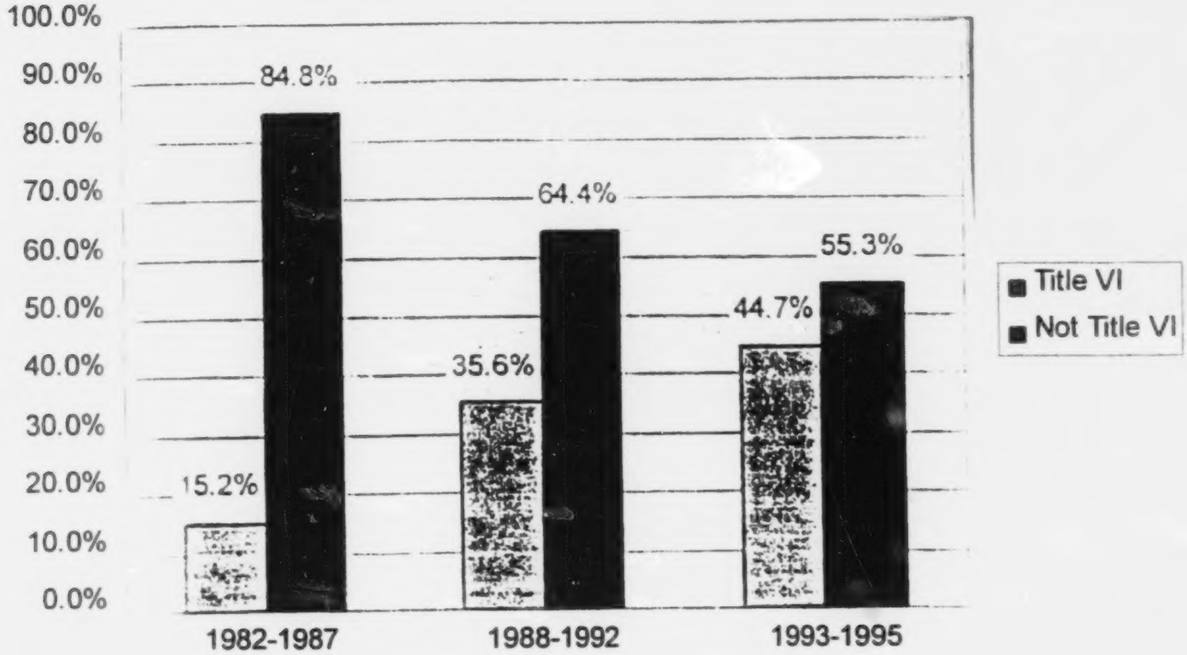

Figure 3.4. PhDs in the LCTLs

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Scholar/Pedagogues

A more strategic indicator of the direct *impact* of graduate level training in Title VI/F-H flagship programs can be seen in a 1998 NFLC survey of 24 senior program managers participating in meetings of the Federal Interagency Language Roundtable (FILR), which represents more than 20 government agencies with significant language demands. That survey revealed that two-thirds of the senior managers had studied in a Title VI/F-H institution or had received a FLAS or National Defense Foreign Language (NDFL) fellowship, a finding that reveals the impact of Title VI/F-H on federal language programs. The survey instrument appears in Appendix 3.3.

The impact of Title VI/F-H on sectors beyond the academic is demonstrated by a survey of *current* FLAS recipients conducted by the NFLC for this report. In that survey, 65 percent of the 271 respondents reported plans to seek teaching or research jobs in academia, while 30 percent reported plans to seek private or public sector jobs. The survey instrument appears in Appendix 3.4.

Together, the two surveys indicate that Title VI/F-H programs have provided and will continue to provide trained managers and faculty for language programs.

While government agencies and private sector enterprises have significant language expertise in the form of teachers and researchers, they do not train such experts. The training function is the responsibility of academic institutions, many of which are supported by Title VI/F-H.

Teachers

Teachers have always been a primary concern of Title VI/F-H, as they are specifically mentioned in the original NDEA and received special mention in the latest reauthorization. The LRCs are authorized to undertake:

- The training of teachers in the administration and interpretation of performance tests, the use of effective teaching strategies, and the use of new technologies [Section 603(b)(2)(D)]
- The development and dissemination of materials designed to serve as a resource for foreign language teachers at the elementary and secondary levels [Section 603(b)(2)(F)]
- The operation of intensive summer language institutes to train advanced foreign language students, to provide professional development, and to improve language instruction through preservice and inservice language training for teachers [Section 603(b)(2)(G)]

Gilbert Merkx of the University of New Mexico estimates that higher education requires some 1,400 new foreign language faculty yearly.[34] The aging of the professorate will lead to a crisis in higher education if replacements are not available. The Merkx study, viewed against the number of PhDs produced by Title VI/F-H institutions, particularly in the LCTLs, demonstrates the criticality of Title VI/F-H programs.

Programs aimed at developing the skills of language teachers are particularly important now, for several reasons. First, the number of languages to be taught is expanding rapidly. Second, technological innovation offers new opportunities for teaching and learning and places new demands on teachers. Third, many teachers in some LCTLs are heritage speakers who, although well educated, are not trained language pedagogues. In the area of teacher development, Title VI/F-H appears to have played a particularly strong role. We have already indicated the indirect role this program has had in strengthening the agenda of ACTFL, which has become a major force in in-service teacher training. At the K–12 level, NRC outreach programs have focused on teachers. Recently formed LRCs have provided important training for teachers at the K–12 level (particularly the LRC at Iowa State University) and at the postsecondary level, where the scope is not limited to the CTLs. The CIBE program has brought international business curricula to postsecondary language teachers from non-CIBE institutions nationwide through faculty development workshops. From 1989 to 1997, the CIBE program trained some 3,569 language faculty in 146 faculty development workshops.[35]

These data indicate outputs. We have no data on the long-term effect of Title VI/F-H–supported training on teachers or their students. Precious little data exist on exactly who has been served, which skills have been targeted (language or pedagogy), and what kinds of programs are still most needed. An increased focus on teacher development would seem to be appropriate for the CIBE program, however, once questions like the preceding are answered.

Conclusion (Experts)

Title VI/F-H clearly is critical to the production of teachers, researchers, and scholar/pedagogues in the LCTLs. Its role in the CTLs is less critical. If language program expansion at the K–12 level continues, however, there will be a great need for language-teacher training, and Title VI/F-H could and should play a major role—for all languages.

Practitioners

One of the most significant expansions of the original mission of Title VI/F-H was the addition of "Part B, Business and International Education Programs," during the 1980 reauthorization process, an augmentation that confirmed the inclusion of the professional practitioner in the overall strategic goals of the program. By expanding the legislation in this way, Congress made a clear statement to the international community about the value of functional language skills in the conduct of economic and business affairs.[36] That statement provided the wedge for professional practitioners in the political and social domains (including "civic and non-profit," as called for in the newly reauthorized Section 601 Findings and Purposes).

The evidence presented in Chapter 4 supports the proposition that the nation's supply of professionals proficient in the LCTLs is inadequate. (In particular, see Chapter 4 for a discussion of the results of a survey of professional licensure, accreditation, and certification organizations by the Center for Quality Assurance in International Education, in collaboration with the NFLC). The language study that does occur in professional graduate programs takes place largely at Title VI/F-H institutions.

Another indication of the contribution of Title VI/F-H institutions to the language awareness of business practitioners is the following. In the 1996–1997 academic year, the 25 CIBEs offered instruction in foreign language for business at the undergraduate and graduate levels in 11 languages: Arabic, French, German, Modern Hebrew, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Mandarin, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish.[37]

Clearly, the traditional trading partners of the United States—Canada, Mexico, and Western Europe—are represented here. If one compares this list of languages against the list of the largest emerging markets, moreover, it would be possible to conclude that the CIBE program provided *access* and *exposure* to foreign language for business in several languages of high priority to economic competitiveness. However, this kind of argument does little to document *impact*. Further data collection and research are required to determine the precise language needs of business, particularly given the growing importance of "World English" and the proliferation of language tools and services.[38] Once those needs are documented, it should be possible to measure the impact of the CIBE program on meeting them. In substantiating *impact*, the utilization of language expertise in the careers of CIBE and other Title VI/F-H graduates must be studied.[39]

Based on the available evidence, the contribution of Title VI/F-H to the national pool of practitioners is unclear, as there are few data sources indicating the full impact of Title VI/F-H on practitioners in business, government, and social services. However, the focus on professional practitioners as a major client of international studies and language programs is an important priority of the Title VI/F-H legislation.

Citizens

The purpose of language programming under Title VI/F-H is clear when it comes to experts. When the goal is to educate the general citizenry in language and international studies, the mission of Title VI/F-H is less well defined. In the following discussion, we shall assume three basic language-specific goals involved in the citizen education mission of Title VI/F-H:

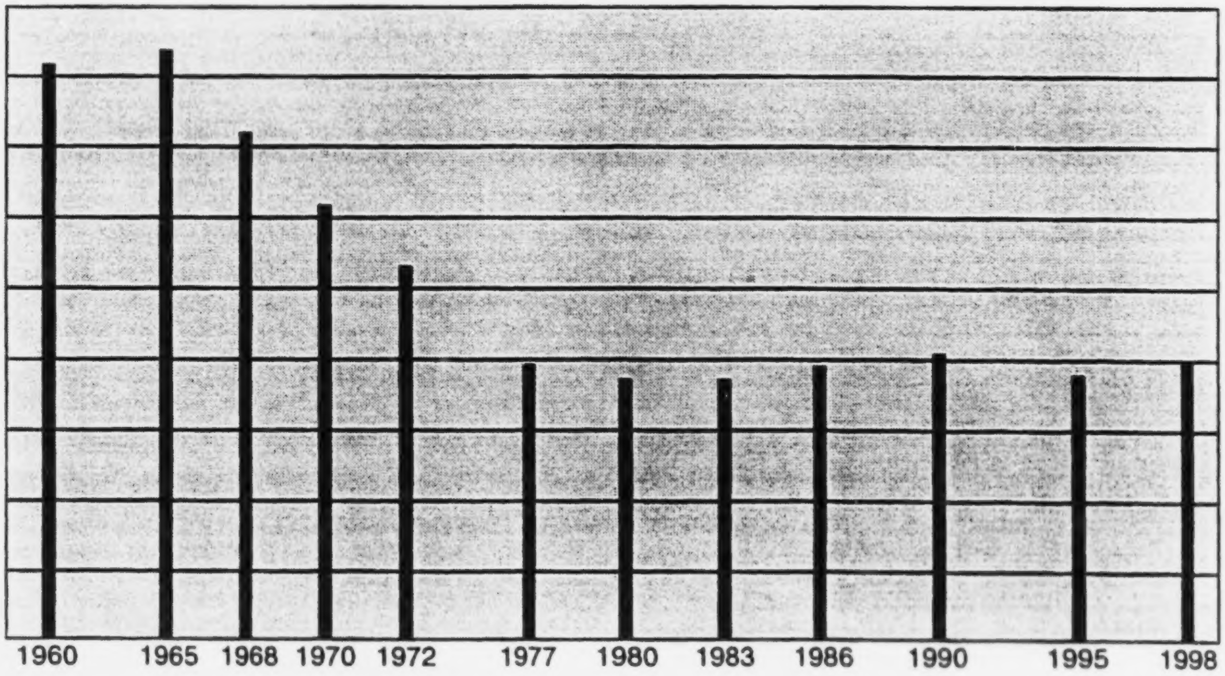
- Public awareness of the role of language competence in global communication and of the importance of language competence for national security

- Public understanding of the need to experience other cultures and of the role of language competence in the success of such experiences
- Expansion of the base of the language-enrollment pyramid in order to guarantee an adequate supply of experts and professional practitioners

Language Study as a Part of Students' General Education

One of the primary missions of language instruction at the school or college level is getting students to appreciate language and culture and to communicate more effectively. However, the success of foreign language study as a vehicle for these aspects of *general education* is questionable, given the relatively small numbers of language students in our schools, colleges, and universities.

Since the first statistics were gathered on language enrollments in the nation's colleges and universities, the percentage of students taking a foreign language has dropped, from a high of 16.5 percent in 1965 to 7.9 percent in 1998. This has happened in spite of the fact that Spanish enrollments are rising rapidly, accounting now for 53 percent of language enrollments at the postsecondary level[40] and 64.5 percent at the secondary level (grades 7–12).[41] The LCTLs continue to attract approximately 10 percent of students taking foreign language, a number that has remained constant over the years.



Source: Modern Language Association.

Figure 3.5. Percentage of College Students Taking Languages

The percentage of children taking language at the K–12 level is increasing, but it still remains meager: 14 percent of elementary school students, 36 percent of middle school and junior high students, and 52 percent of high school students.[42] Moreover, there is little evidence to prove (or refute) the assertion that language-learning careers are continuous. That is, it is unknown *how long* K–12 learners take language, what proficiencies they reach, and to what degree elementary, middle, and high school programs "articulate," whether from middle to high school or from high school to postsecondary education. Data from 1994 show that 65 percent of secondary enrollments and 67 percent of middle school enrollments are in Spanish, indicating that other languages are not well represented and that K–12 students do not have an opportunity to develop proficiency in a range of languages.[43]

A few other facts may be of interest:

- As a rule, only approximately 5 percent of all students taking language study non-European languages; that is, only 5 percent of our language students study the languages of approximately 85 percent of the world's population.
- In 1995, the American Association of State Colleges and Universities surveyed its members to determine the level of international education activity on their campuses. Japanese was offered at 45 percent of AASCU campuses, Russian at 44 percent, Chinese at 31 percent, Portuguese at 8 percent, Arabic at 7 percent, Korean at 3 percent, and Kiswahili at 1 percent.[44]

Clearly, the concept that language should constitute part of the general education of America's children is not generally accepted in this country; nor is there any indication that the situation is improving. To what degree is Title VI/F-H responsible for this situation? First, there can be no arguing the fact that the funding base of the legislation makes any ambition for changing education behavior on so grand a scale simply unrealistic. Given the general attitude of Americans towards foreign language, it would take a major national effort at the elementary and secondary levels to begin to reverse the disinterest in language study. The Clinton administration has proposed just such an effort in its recent proposals for the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Those proposals would improve foreign language instruction by setting a national goal that 25 percent of all public elementary schools offer high-quality, standards-based foreign language programs by the year 2005, rising to 50 percent by 2010. The bill would help states and districts meet this goal by supporting the development of foreign language standards and assessments, expanding the pool of elementary school foreign language teachers through improved recruitment and professional development efforts, and encouraging the use of educational technology in foreign language instruction.[45] If this proposal, or others like it, were to become reality, the general education mission of language programming in higher education would have to be reexamined.[46]

Fortunately, we are starting to get a better picture of social attitudes towards language. A recent Harris/NFLC Poll has revealed the following:

- 67 percent of Americans regularly encounter speakers of languages other than English in their daily lives. Multilingualism is real, even within the borders of the United States
- Almost 80 percent of Americans think language is important, at least for business people, teachers, and government employees[47]

Those numbers indicate very clearly that Americans are aware of the existence and even the value of other languages. Why, then, are not more Americans taking language? The answer, it appears, is reflected in another result of the Harris/NFLC poll: The average American believes that a majority of the world speaks English.

All these responses seem to boil down to a fairly simple conclusion: "It is important to have professionals with knowledge of other languages, but the world is filled with people who speak English as their first, second, or third language. So, essentially, while language ability is nice, it's just not vital."

The Undervaluation of Language Study

This *laissez-faire* attitude towards language has carried over into the educational system to the extent that our schools, colleges, and universities undervalue the study of language. They do not expect—let alone require—their students to learn languages, and they are more and more content to limit the concept of language learning to Spanish. That attitude is now reinforced by a massive language services industry that grows by the day and provides more and better translation and interpretation on demand. (See Chapter 4 for a discussion of the language services industry.)

Although there is no disputing the fact that English is the dominant world language, most of the world does not speak it. Nor is there any real possibility for the foreseeable future that language tools and services will be good enough and cheap enough to fill the language needs that globalization has created in the United States. Even if they were, an argument could still be made that our schools should place language study in the core of their curriculum, on a par with science and history. The weakness of the argument against foreign language study is revealed using an analogy with mathematics. The rest of the world is learning mathematics, one might assert, so why don't we just let graduates from other countries do the calculations and solve whatever problems can't be solved using computers and calculators? It is equally questionable to hold that, since the rest of the world is learning English, we should rely on graduates from other lands to provide us with the translations and interpretations we need, or that the existence of language tools and services removes the need for a "plurilingual" citizenry.[48]

However these issues are resolved in the next decade, Title VI/F-H can and should play a role, although the problem extends far beyond the scope of the legislation.

Language, Study Abroad, and Cultural Understanding

The second rationale for inclusion of the citizen-related goal of Title VI/F-H has to do with the fact that, although courses on the cultures of the world and on cross-cultural communication are valuable, an experience in another culture is by far the most effective means of instilling deep cultural understanding. Personal reports and scholarly research have shown that the experience of living in another culture, even for a brief amount of time, literally can change one's life. Study abroad provides the consummate *learning by doing* environment, one that creates a true appreciation of difference and an unshakable affection for, as well as an understanding of, another culture. The beneficial effect of this experience is so well appreciated that it is now a priority in hiring among many of the large U.S. corporations.[49] Furthermore, it constitutes the primary reason why students stay involved in language study in the first place: to have an experience beyond the everyday, to experience cultures they have heard and read about, to travel to new places, and to meet young people from other countries and cultures.

Interacting with bearers of other cultures will be part of each learner's life experience sooner or later, both in this country and abroad, in person and electronically, in professional and personal interactions. Understanding this, educational systems and institutions should aim to provide the skills students need to succeed at these interactions. Cross-cultural communication and foreign language come to the fore as the keys to success. In other words, experiencing another culture is the educational goal, and language makes the experience possible.

This approach to advancing language as the key to experiencing other cultures might be considered a legitimate mission of Title VI/F-H. Once again, however, the size of the educational endeavor and the modest level of program funding make it unlikely. In addition, Title VI/F-H has no mandate in statute or regulation for promoting student study abroad, an omission so glaring that it became one of the justifications for establishing NSEP in 1991. Because the need for Americans to experience other cultures is real and the key role of language study in the enterprise is obvious, funding for NSEP should be increased and Title VI/F-H should begin to collaborate with NSEP. Alternatively, Title VI/F-H should be expanded to support study abroad. In the meantime, Title VI/F-H can do little to promote the experience of other cultures in the schools, colleges, and universities of the United States.

Widening the Base of the Language-Study Pyramid

Perhaps the clearest rationale for Title VI/F-H taking on the citizen-related goal in the language domain has to do with the simple fact that attainment of competence in a foreign language is a long-term affair. Statistics show that the typical language program has an attrition rate of approximately 50 percent in the first year and 50 percent in the second. Given the fact that any functional competence in a language requires study well beyond the first two years, a sufficient number of experts and practitioners can be generated only from a broad beginning and intermediate language enrollment base, one which has a higher retention rate at the upper levels. To the extent that Title VI/F-H supports language education among the general citizenry, it will be working to meet its goals of producing experts and practitioners by expanding the base from which these more language proficient human resources are drawn.

Another rationale for building the base of the pyramid is the impact that base has on the nation's competence in LCTLs. Research has shown that a foreign language, even a "truly foreign" one, is more quickly acquired if the learner has already acquired competence in another.[50] Therefore, the expansion of enrollments in Spanish and French, for example, may indirectly support the learning of LCTLs if students move on to try a second foreign language.

Conclusion (Citizens)

The general-education and cultural-experience missions within the citizen-related goal of Title VI/F-H are beyond the locus of responsibility of the program, given (1) the scope of the problem nationally, (2) negative trends in language enrollments, and (3) the modest size of the Title VI/F-H budget, especially that part devoted to language. Supporting foreign language among the general citizenry is nevertheless an important service because of the message it sends to schools, colleges, and universities across the country that the federal government considers foreign language study vital to the nation's wellbeing. It further helps build the base of language enrollments nationwide, which indirectly supports the production of experts and practitioners and strengthens the LCTLs.

Capacity

As earlier noted, the definition of language capacity involves the distinct notions of *sector* and *field*. We will deal with both in this section.

The Five Sectors of National Language Capacity

The intervention strategy for language represented by Title VI/F-H essentially is one of building supply and housing capacity within the nation's colleges and universities. We have noted already that capacity in the United States comprises five sectors: academic, federal, private, heritage, and overseas. Title VI/F-H, as part of the Higher Education Act, is directed at the academic sector. The reason for this is obvious when one defines national need in terms of knowledge and human resources—the specific products of any educational system. This is not to say that the other sectors do not themselves house capacity components. In particular, the federal sector has built a significant capacity to supply language instruction for approximately 70 agencies that require language competence. The principal institutions that make up that capacity are the AmeriSchool at the U.S. Department of

Agriculture, the CIA, DLI, and FSI language schools, and the National Cryptologic School. All of these enterprises provide training for personnel in the military and in all federal agencies. In addition, they house a cadre of experts in language, linguistics, and pedagogy; several of them have distinguished research units.

Because they operate on an annual budget, however, these federal language training facilities are unable to offer languages for which there are no present requirements. They cannot do basic research on linguistics and SLA without direct impact on existing programming, nor can they support graduate facilities for the purpose of training their own experts. Those functions are the regular responsibility of programs and faculty in our nation's colleges and universities. Only academe, with its broad educational mission and tenured faculty, can invest for the long term in basic research and programming, particularly for LCTLs. Only universities can offer the broad range of courses and concentrations needed to support language learning (such as area studies, literature, history, and politics) and research (in cognitive science, psychology, anthropology, computer sciences, sociology, and other disciplines). In a word, the policy of investing in our colleges and universities as the warehouses of much of the nation's language capacity is sound; in fact, it is difficult to imagine an alternative to that policy.

However, to make the academic sector more effective in strengthening capacity, the strengths of the other sectors should be drawn in and their weaknesses mitigated. At present, the sectors interact very little, and Title VI/F-H does little to improve the situation. For example, the clearest opportunity for cooperation would be between the academic and federal sectors, as both are facing crises. The academic sector is rapidly losing language enrollments, and the federal sector is finding it more and more difficult to meet the need for language-qualified personnel. This would seem to warrant closer collaboration, but collaboration is frustrated by mutual mistrust between the sectors. As a rule, educators are unaware of the resources and expertise in the federal language programs, generally ignorant of the language needs of the federal and private sectors, and largely disdainful of any connection with the military or with intelligence agencies. The federal sector players, for their part, are unconvinced that the academic sector has anything to offer their programs, which they consider more demanding and clearly more responsive to federal needs. At this stage, no solution exists to bridge this gulf.

When it comes to the interface with other sectors, the situation is hardly better. In the United States, the greatest natural language resource we have is the residents of our ethnic communities who speak languages other than English at home—by last count more than 32 million people. Although some university language programs around the country are beginning to address the needs of these special language learners, no leadership in this direction is being provided by Title VI/F-H. The *heritage sector* comprises thousands of after-school or weekend programs run by and for communities seeking to maintain their ancestral language. Many of these schools are well organized and are seeking recognition by the formal education system. They are also asking for assistance in developing their teachers, improving their curriculum, testing their students, and obtaining credit at the K–12 level for their students. An effective interface with this sector could significantly enhance the nation's language competence, particularly in the "truly foreign" languages, where few native English-speaking students are able to spend the time required to reach levels of true proficiency. Title VI/F-H could and should encourage collaboration between the academic and heritage sectors.

Finally, the situation with the *overseas sector* deserves more attention. That sector can be seen to include in-country language programs and programs sponsored by foreign governments to promote their language and culture. Some in-country language programs are run by indigenous institutions as part of a bilateral agreement between academic institutions for the purpose of exchange or study abroad programming. Another model is American overseas centers administering exchange and research programs for American scholars and students. Only recently has Title VI/F-H allocated funding in direct support of the latter types of centers. Although many of the programs supported by Title VI/F-H cooperate with or make use of foreign government programs, no federal program has the responsibility of building and strengthening these relationships, just as no part of Title VI/F-H is directed at undergraduate study abroad. Given the fact that proficiency in any language presumes study in the target country, this omission from the legislative mandate is puzzling and worrisome.

Capacity as Defined by Fields

As noted above, capacity designates the collective resources available nationally to supply the language competence required to meet national needs. That capacity, we have argued, can be defined as a set of language-specific fields, consisting of a set of base structures, infrastructure elements, and flagship programs. To the extent that this field architecture is strong, the national capacity in that language is sound. By the same token, to the extent that Title VI/F-H supports these architectural elements, it can be said to be sustaining and strengthening national language capacity.

As explained in Chapter 2, the base and infrastructure elements of a field refer to the national structures and mechanisms that support instruction and learning. Those structures and mechanisms include knowledge and expertise, professional associations, teacher training programs, and publication outlets and mechanisms. The principal and most recognizable elements in this architecture, however, are the field's *flagship language programs*. A flagship program is defined as one that offers high-quality, advanced instruction in a given language. It is one that is not under constant threat of diminution or elimination by its institution, primarily because it is an essential part of that institution's image. A flagship program houses significant expertise and resources on a long-term basis and, accordingly, is a program upon which the field in general relies.

The Criticality of Flagship Programs

Since its beginning, Title VI/F-H has been unusual within the USED in its orientation to institutions. Rather than providing financial aid to individuals or block grants to states, the legislation has focused on building and maintaining flagship language programs throughout the country. It has accomplished that goal primarily through its support of NRCs and through the seeding strategy implemented by the UISFL program.[51] Perhaps the clearest indicator of the success of this flagship strategy is the simple and indisputable fact that in this country many languages, including almost all of the LCTLs, in this country would not or could not be taught on a regular basis if it were not for Title VI/F-H.

The truth of that assertion, which is supported by interviews with language specialists and with university administrators around the country, can be further demonstrated by comparing enrollment data for languages in Title VI/F-H and non–Title VI/F-H institutions. From the following MLA statistics, it is apparent that the small group of Title VI/F-H–supported institutions constitutes the essence of this nation's capacity to teach the LCTLs at the university level. For certain languages, such as the Central Asian languages and African languages other than Swahili, no instruction is available outside institutions supported by Title VI/F-H.

Sixty-four Title VI/F-H–supported programs account for 22.5 percent of U.S. undergraduate language enrollments in languages other than French, German, Italian, and Spanish. As with graduate enrollments, 64 Title VI/F-H institutions, which represent 2.66 percent of the 2,399 colleges and universities in this country, carry a disproportionate burden for instruction in the LCTLs.[52]

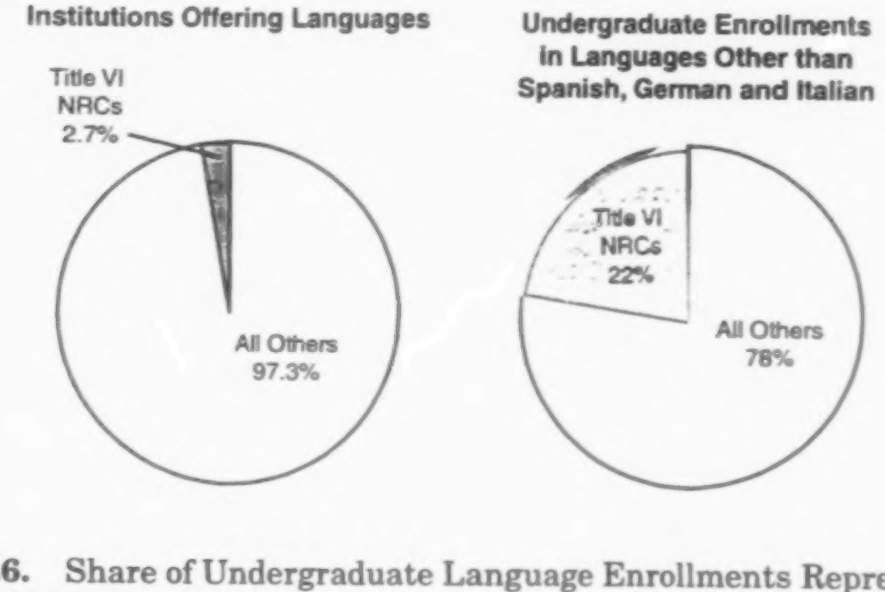


Figure 3.6. Share of Undergraduate Language Enrollments Represented by Title VI/F-H Institutions

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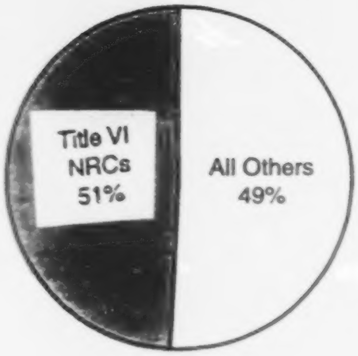

Figure 3.7. Undergraduate Enrollments in the Least Commonly Taught Languages

If one focuses on the least commonly taught languages, omitting the 10 languages with the highest enrollments (Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Modern Hebrew, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish), the 64 Title VI–supported institutions account for 51 percent of undergraduate enrollments in U.S. colleges and universities.

These facts speak for themselves. Title VI/F-H–supported institutions are the principal repository of LCTL programs in the United States. Clearly, educational institutions across the country, outside of the small set supported by Title VI/F-H, cannot or will not add the LCTLs—particularly the least commonly taught languages—to their language programming. The cost of low-enrollment programming in any institution is prohibitive; the availability of faculty, and even of part-time instructors, is problematic; and support from students and faculty is spotty. Accordingly, the comparative data seem to document beyond doubt the impact of Title VI/F-H in maintaining capacity in the LCTLs by supporting the flagship programs across the country.

Seeding the LCTLs

In addition to being the principal source of support for the flagship programs in the LCTLs, Title VI/F-H also appears to play a decisive role in seeding LCTL programs in institutions where they might not otherwise be offered, thereby enabling a campus to leverage resources to add or expand offerings in a language.

Data from a recent study of the impact of grants made by the UISFL program indicate that the grants are effective at enabling recipient campuses to add programs in the less and least commonly taught languages. Led by Barbara Burn of the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, the study evaluated the impact of 78 UISFL grants made between 1982 and 1992, including the impact of the grant on campus language activity. The table below summarizes the grants made by language category, the number of language programs on the 78 grantee campuses before and after the grant, and the increase or decrease in the number of language programs, by category.[53]

From these data, it appears that UISFL grants were used to strengthen the CTLs; for the principal LCTLs, roughly one-third of the grants resulted in new programs; for the least commonly taught languages, all of the grants resulted in new language programs. Our conclusion is that, where Title VI/F-H funding is available, it is effective in increasing the number of programs in the less and least commonly taught languages, an effect that broadens the accessibility of such language programming. The effect of UISFL grants on enrollments seems clear.

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Table 3.1. Impact of UISFL Grants, 1982–1992

Language Category	Number of grants targeted to this category	Number of language programs in this category, pre-grant[a]	Number of language programs in this category, post-grant	Increase in number of programs	Ratio of new programs to grants
CTL[b]	76	258	266	8	11%
Principal LCTL[c]	52	109	126	17	33%
Least CTL[d]	16	27	44	17	106%

Notes:

[a] The number of programs exceeds the number of grants and campuses; one campus may have several language programs.

[b] French, German, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, and Hebrew. In institutions of higher education, Italian and Portuguese are typically collocated with French and Spanish departments. It is not clear whether they should be included with the CTLs or the LCTLs. For purposes of this analysis, they are included with the CTLs, based on their behavior in this sample; that is, the UISFL grants had little apparent impact on these languages. If they were included with the principal LCTLs (on the basis of national enrollments), neither category would change significantly.

[c] Chinese, Japanese, Russian.

[d] Arabic, Czech, Hausa, Hindi/Urdu, Indonesian, Korean, Polish, Serbo-Croatian, Swahili, Thai, Vietnamese, Yoruba.

Source: Schneider, A., with B. Burn. 1999. *Federal Funding for International Studies: Does It Help? Does It Matter? Long-Term Impacts of Federal Funding on International Studies and Foreign Language Programs: A Research Report.* Amherst, MA: Association of International Education Administrators.

If the dynamics of national enrollment were to be included in this analysis, it might appear that the UISFL grants had no effect. Further analysis is required to see if the data from the Burn study show a correlation between the receipt of a UISFL grant and program creation/persistence or increased enrollments. It may be that increases in the LCTLs (and, for that matter, the CTLs, especially Spanish) reflect the national increase in enrollments in certain LCTLs (in particular, Russian and Chinese) in the early- and mid-1980s. On the other hand, even if language enrollments at UISFL grantee institutions were flat, it might be that the UISFL recipients were better able than nonrecipients to maintain enrollments in an era of generally declining enrollments. A tentative conclusion is that small-scale grants are of use in seeding LCTL programs but of little apparent impact on the CTLs, as far as the establishment of language programs or the increase of enrollments is concerned. Any impact in the least commonly taught languages must be tempered with the caveat that these numbers (both programs and enrollments) start at very low baselines and are thus

Table 3.2. Effect of Title VI/F-H Funding on Enrollments in Less and Least Commonly Taught Languages

Language Category	Pre-grant enrollments at grantee institutions	Post-grant enrollments at grantee institutions	Percent increase
CTL[a]	30,851	34,664	12%
Principal LCTL[b]	2,882	3,614	25%
Least CTL[c]	31	79	255%

Notes:

[a] French, German, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, and Hebrew.

[b] Chinese, Japanese, Russian.

[c] Arabic, Czech, Hausa, Hindi/Urdu, Indonesian, Korean, Polish, Serbo-Croatian, Swahili, Thai, Vietnamese, Yoruba.

Source: Schneider, A., with B. Burn. 1999. *Federal Funding for International Studies: Does It Help? Does It Matter? Long-Term Impacts of Federal Funding on International Studies and Foreign Language Programs: A Research Report.* Amherst, MA: Association of International Education Administrators.

likely to be statistically unreliable. Such analyses lie beyond the scope of the current report.

Flagship Programs and the Training of Experts and Professional Practitioners

By definition, experts and professional practitioners require a functional competence in their target language, competence that can be acquired only in higher-level courses and through study abroad. A comparison of enrollments in higher-level courses in Title VI/F-H- and non-Title VI/F-H–supported institutions might be expected to indicate even further the value of flagship programs. Title VI/F-H institutions should graduate a high percentage of more proficient learners. Because the MLA survey does not discriminate by level of instruction, however, such a comparison is impossible. On the other hand, an examination of data on students going abroad, obtained from the ACTR and NSEP study abroad databases, indicates that students from Title VI–supported institutions account for a disproportionately high percentage of program applicants and participants.

In Russian, some 267 institutions, including 22 Title VI–supported institutions (9 percent), appear in the database of applicants to ACTR study abroad programs in Russia. Of the 4,141 applicants from 1976 to 1997, 1019 (24.6 percent) came from Title VI–supported institutions. With respect to Russian, therefore, Title VI/F-H supplies a disproportionately high percentage of potential professionals and practitioners.

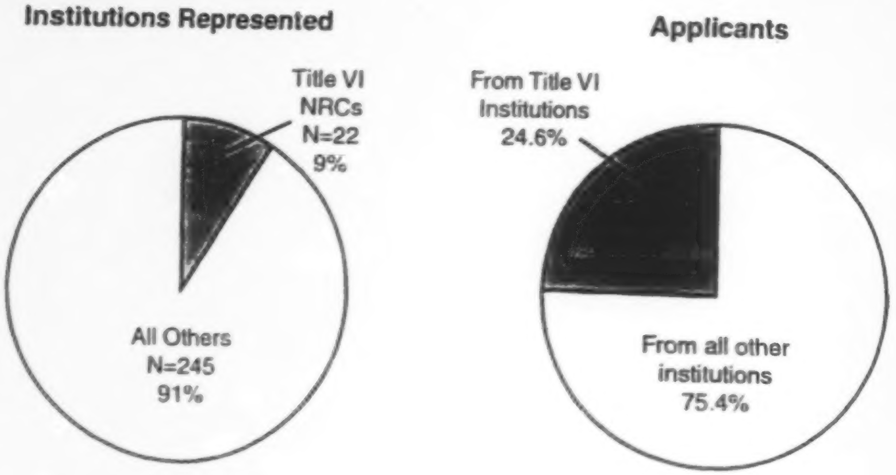

Figure 3.8. Title VI/F-H Contributions to ACTR Study Abroad Applicant Pool

In the *undergraduate* cohort of ACTR participants, the students from NRCs at Title VI–supported institutions had significantly higher mean scores on the grammar test used to screen applicants.[54] These results indicate that, in one particular language, NRCs produce a generally higher level of proficiency, possibly because NRCs tend to be housed in large universities with substantial programs and more resources to support language instruction. Therefore, one must view the issue of quality cautiously, in that the locus of responsibility again lies partly outside Title VI/F-H.

Of 213 recipients of undergraduate and graduate study abroad fellowships awarded by NSEP in 27 languages, 35 (16.5 percent) were enrolled at institutions supported by Title VI/F-H NRCs. In Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian, 25 of 123 recipients (20 percent) came from institutions supported by NRCs. Title VI/F-H again supplies a disproportionately high percentage of future professionals and practitioners, given that the Title VI/F-H institutions represent less than 3 percent of the institutions that provide language instruction in the United States.

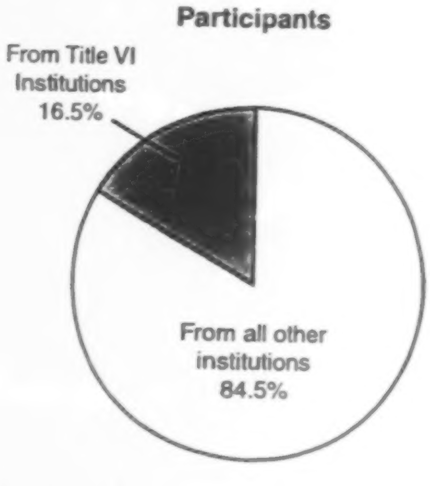

Figure 3.9. Title VI/F-H Contributions to NSEP Study Abroad Participant Pool

Frailty of Flagship Programs

A close look at the campuses that host flagship language programs provides strong evidence for the criticality of the Title VI/F-H investment. The measure of criticality in the frame of reference of the GPRA is based on the following hypothetical question: What would happen to the LCTLs if the funding support for Title VI/F-H were removed? How critical is Title VI/F-H funding to the continuance of such programs on a given campus? To get at these questions, in early 1997 the NFLC administered two surveys as part of the current study. The first was a survey of administrators to whom NRC directors reported. The second was a survey of NRC directors themselves. The survey instruments appear as Appendixes 3.5 and 3.6.

Campus administrators on Title VI-F-H–supported campuses were asked to rate the impact of the (hypothetical) loss of NRC funding on the language offerings supported by or related to the center. Of the 63 respondents, 52 (83 percent) indicated that the consequences of such a loss of funding would result in the reduction of course offerings or the elimination of certain languages altogether.

Even allowing for the halo effect of the questionnaire, the overwhelming number of administrators attesting to the criticality of Title VI/F-H funding is significant. Their responses were echoed in numerous interviews with campus administrators conducted by the NFLC in the course of this study.

NRC administrators were asked an open-ended question about the impact of Title VI/F-H funding. Of the 63 respondents, 44 (70 percent) mentioned the opportunity to leverage additional funding from university or external sources, or the prestige and external visibility deriving from the presence of the NRC on their campus.[55]

The NFLC survey of NRC directors confirmed these findings. Of 87 respondents, 65 (75 percent) indicated that their language programs were either under pressure to reduce costs or at risk of reduction. Sixty-two respondents (71 percent) stated that without Title VI/F-H funding, some of the language offerings necessary to the NRCs' programs would not survive; 72 respondents (83 percent) claimed that Title VI/F-H funds were essential to the language component of the programs. In spite of this declared criticality, fully two-thirds of the respondents stated that current Title VI/F-H funding was inadequate to meet all of the language needs of the NRCs.

Infrastructure

The role of Title VI/F-H in building and maintaining national capacity through investments in the base and infrastructure components of language fields is much less pronounced than its role in seeding and strengthening flagship programs. The legal requirement that Title VI/F-H funding for NRCs, CIBEs, and LRCs be channeled through institutions of higher education limits the effect the program can have on basic infrastructure. Although Title VI/F-H does have component programs directed at individual researchers and teachers, whose activities contribute to the architecture of language fields, it is prevented by statute from investing directly in fieldwide organizations, publishing houses, national communications networks, or any other fieldwide effort that is not housed in and funded through a college or university. This restriction is not necessarily damaging, for the USED encourages collaborations between institutions of higher learning and any of these field elements. However, in competing for support, applications to Title VI/F-H are selected on the basis of the strengths of the institution putting forth the proposal, and there is little incentive for an institution to invest a significant part of the project resources in fieldwide rather than institutionally based structures or activities.

Therefore, if the strength of the architecture of language fields in the United States is an indicator of the success of Title VI/F-H, then assessment of Title VI/F-H in this regard will be mixed. On the one hand, the architecture of the CTLs is well developed, but these languages have not been the principal focus of Title VI/F-H outside of the teacher-training components of its programs. The LCTLs, on the other hand, display a full range of architectural strengths: Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian are relatively strong fields, although each is lacking in certain important aspects. Many of the least commonly taught languages, by contrast, are very needy in major components of their architecture, and Title VI/F-H has been able to contribute little in this regard. Evidence for this conclusion is derived from the following.

As noted earlier in the chapter, the NFLC surveyed the membership of NCOLCTL in spring 1997 to acquire some sense of the perceived strength of the individual language fields it represents.[56] The data from the survey provide a rich and finely textured picture of the capacity of these language fields. Of interest here is the general conclusion that the bases and infrastructures of the LCTL fields are systemically weak, and, for the least commonly taught languages, uniformly and dangerously so.

In particular, the expertise base in the least commonly taught languages is seen as weak:

- 50 percent of respondents (15 of 30) rated library holdings in their fields as inadequate
- 79 percent of respondents (23 of 29) rated computer and on-line resources as inadequate
- 73 percent of respondents (22 of 30) rated standards for curriculum and program development as inadequate or nonexistent
- 77 percent of respondents (23 of 30) rated mechanisms for consortial and collaborative projects and information and resource sharing as inadequate or nonexistent
- 63 percent of respondents (19 of 30) rated mechanisms for fieldwide strategic planning as inadequate or nonexistent
- 70 percent of respondents (21 of 30) rated data on second language acquisition in their fields as inadequate or nonexistent

The infrastructure in the least commonly taught languages is perceived to be weak:

- 60 percent of respondents (15 of 25) rated the research tradition in SLA in their fields as inadequate or nonexistent
- 70 percent of respondents (15 of 25) rated the impact of research in SLA on their fields as negligible

- 83 percent of respondents (15 of 25) rated the quality of research in SLA in their fields as mediocre or worse
- 80 percent of respondents (24 of 30) rated graduate programs in their fields as inadequate or nonexistent
- 65 percent of respondents (15 of 23) rated SLA concentrations in graduate programs in their fields as inadequate or nonexistent

The picture painted by these data is unremittingly grim, even if one accounts for the halo effect (here perhaps a darker metaphor would serve) of a survey conducted in the context of an evaluation of the language portion of Title VI/F-H. That is, one might expect some respondents to state their case perhaps too gloomily, in hopes of more support for their field through the dissemination of the results of the survey. However, these data confirm the intuitive perception and anecdotal evidence that the least commonly taught languages in the United States lead a precarious existence, and with respect to the continued existence of these fields and the capacity within these fields to meet long-term national needs, the current state of affairs in the least commonly taught languages is alarming.

Generic Language Infrastructure

Above we discussed the support that Title VI/F-H has provided ACTFL in the development of the proficiency movement, national language standards, and teacher certification. The success of the proficiency movement has been responsible for the emergence of ACTFL as the leading language teachers association in the country, conducting major teacher training and tester training programs. Working with ACTFL, other national teachers associations have assumed leadership roles in standards and now teacher certification, most of which derive no little benefit from the proficiency standards work that Title VI/F-H has funded. Language has become a discipline included in the National Assessment for Educational Progress report card, an event made possible by the contributions of Title VI/F-H to the standards and testing aspect of the language fields. All of these developments provide essential fieldwide infrastructure elements for each and every language field. The argument can be made, therefore, that Title VI/F-H has had an important impact on the infrastructure of language fields and so on the language capacity of the United States.

Direct Field Support

In spite of Title VI/F-H's prevalent strategy of providing support for institutions as opposed to fields, a recent development in the statute and report language of Title VI/F-H has opened the door to a strategy of direct support to specific language fields. We refer here to the latest reauthorizing language for the LRCs, which allows them to specialize in a given world or language area. As a result of this change in legislative language, three LRCs have emerged in the last competition focusing on Africa, East Asia, and Eastern and Central Europe. This development, while new, promises to provide direct support to three broad LCTL areas. If this trend were to continue, extending for example to South and Southeast Asia, and if the centers formed partnerships with the fieldwide teacher associations and focused on field development, then there is a strong possibility that Title VI/F-H would in the future be able to take credit for base and infrastructure, in addition to flagship, development.

Conclusion (Capacity)

Title VI/F-H has played a critical role in the development and maintenance of language capacity, particularly in strengthening flagship programs in the LCTLs. The direct impact of Title VI/F-H on the development of field architecture is at best mixed, however, although the newly reauthorized Title VI/F-H legislation enables LRCs to better address this problem.

Findings

The substantive contributions made by Title VI/F-H to language in the United States can be summarized in the following manner:

In the area of promoting *knowledge and information,* Title VI/F-H has made key catalytic investments. While necessarily limited in scope, given the limited budget of the IRS program in particular, the products produced over the years have had a major impact on what is known about language and language learning and how this knowledge is applied. Title VI/F-H funding has played and continues to play an important role in support of basic research in linguistics and SLA, particularly with the addition of the LRC program. In addition, standards development, language learning and teaching materials, language use tools, technology development, and assessment instruments developed with Title VI/F-H support have played pivotal roles across the foreign language field as a whole as well as in specific language fields.

With regard to *expertise,* Title VI/F-H has made critical investments over the years. Title VI/F-H is crucial to the provision of foreign language experts, researchers, teachers, and tool developers, with programs aimed both at the graduate level and at in-service faculty development. Again, expertise in the LCTLs is, in fact, largely dependent upon Title VI/F-H programs.

The mission of building the base of *professional practitioners* in this country is broad indeed, and Title VI/F-H has had some effect here, particularly in raising the level of consciousness in the country with regard to the overall need for such human resources. The focus on the international studies and foreign language needs of business and other professionals is a major accomplishment of Title VI/F-H, particularly Part B of the legislation. It seems clear that this program supplies a significant part of the pool of potential practitioners with language competence. However, few instruments are presently employed to measure the impact of Title VI/F-H programs in this area, particularly by tracking the career paths of students it supports. Accordingly, the magnitude of the role of Title VI/F-H in meeting national needs for professional practitioners is unclear.

The goal of helping produce a *citizenry* educated in the "global aspects of national security" is, by all rights, beyond the scope of a program of the size of Title VI/F-H. If the goal were to be identified as a priority by the Secretary of Education, however, it would be interesting to see what results could be obtained. Title VI/F-H can take credit for a significant part of foreign language education in our nation's colleges and universities. The Title VI/F-H–supported institutions enroll an inordinate percentage of all language students. Their flagship language programs are responsible for the bulk of enrollments in LCTLs nationwide. However, given the relatively poor record of language enrollments more generally, the citizenry mission must be considered the weakest of the Title VI/F-H accomplishments.

Finally, with respect to the *capacity* mission, many of the languages most important to our national security would simply not be taught or researched in our nation's colleges and universities without the support of Title VI/F-H. With regard to *impact* and *criticality*, this is the most positive assessment of the success of this program that can be reported. Nevertheless, language field capacity in the LCTLs continues to be relatively weak.

Criticality of Title VI/F-H

Across all areas of this evaluation, we have raised the question of *criticality*: What would have happened if Title VI/F-H had not existed? Consistently the answer appears to support the need for the program. The most powerful argument remains the almost total dependency of the LCTLs in the United States on Title VI/F-H–supported institutions. Very few non–Title VI/F-H institutions appear to have the will or the resources to invest in costly, low-enrollment programming. Without Title VI/F-H many of the languages critical to the nation's interest in the twenty-first century would not be offered in our colleges and universities.

It is difficult to imagine that much of the critical expertise in the LCTLs would be housed by institutions of higher learning in the United States without Title VI/F-H. The issue of "warehousing" of expertise is important, especially for the federal agencies with language requirements, as the federal authorization and appropriations process gives agencies little leeway for paying for expertise in a range of languages that are not in current demand. As a result, so-called "surge requirements" for language regularly arise in DOD, and the relevant agencies often are forced to establish ad hoc programs or to hire private vendors to provide the language training required—as was the case in Bosnia and Kosovo. To a large extent, however, this training is only possible because of the existence of linguistic descriptions and language tools (grammars and dictionaries), in the main produced by specialists in our nation's universities. It is unrealistic to expect that the government would or could house a duplicate set of experts for hundreds of languages just in case there might arise a political or military need some time in the future.

Finally, we note that the federal government supports only a handful of programs with an interest in foreign language (e.g., NSEP, Title VIII of the State Department Reauthorization Act, and the Foreign Language Assistance Program). Each of those programs stands in a complementary relationship with Title VI/F-H; none has the mission or the resources to replace it—or even to supplement it. Accordingly, we conclude that, even if the programs supported by Title VI/F-H were not judged to be overwhelmingly successful, the criticality of the existing investment would make the program worthwhile. Since the very positive outcomes and impact of the program are clear, the criticality argument only reinforces the positive evaluation of the program.

Locus of Responsibility

A judgment of success seems entirely justified for the knowledge and information, expertise, and capacity goals, particularly with respect to the LCTLs. This is not surprising, given the original mission of the program, as defined in Title VI/F-H of the NDEA, and the post–Cold War expansion of language needs. However, questions remain concerning the weaker records of success in meeting the professional practitioner and citizenry goals, and concerning the CTLs.

As we have shown, relatively few Americans (especially at the postsecondary level) see any use in learning a language. Many of the factors influencing individual choice to enroll in language courses—such as matriculation and graduation requirements, public perceptions of the utility of language, and the perceived difficulty of language learning—are beyond the control of Title VI/F-H. This being the case, it seems unreasonable to hold this relatively small educational program responsible for the low level of citizen participation in language learning.

With regard to professional practitioners, the scarcity of data from the relevant programs moots any judgment of the effectiveness of Title VI/F-H. In this area, the impact of Title VI/F-H remains unclear.

Cost-Effectiveness

The assessment of the cost-effectiveness of Title VI/F-H is based on three factors. The first is the powerful argument of criticality: If Title VI/F-H programs did not exist, many of the languages needed by the public and private sector would not be taught in the United States. If the existence of these language programs is truly beneficial to the country, then the cost is more easily justified. Second, the approximately $65 million annual appropriation for Title VI/F-H is modest by comparison to the normal cost of federal programs. Third, campus contributions to the maintenance of these programs are far greater than the federal contributions—by some estimates 20 times larger[57]—which makes the federal investment more catalytic than substantive. All these considerations argue for a very positive assessment of the cost-effectiveness of Title VI/F-H.

Conclusion

The basic conclusion of the retrospective component of this report is that Title VI/F-H, specifically its language focus and flagship strategy, has constituted a major force in meeting the language needs of the country, particularly as they involve the LCTLs. More importantly, however, is the fact that the role that Title V/F-H has played has been *critical* to meeting those needs in these languages.

Notes

1. "Agencies will be asked, beginning in March of 2000, to account for their performance during FY 1999 by relating what was accomplished to what was planned and approved for that year . . . . The importance of strategic planning and performance measures is dramatically increased because they are linked to the agency budget process, and thus allow the expenditure of resources to be compared to performance as the means to improve decision making." *Demonstrating Results: An Introduction to the Government Performance and Results Act*. 1998. Washington, DC: Higher Education Programs Office, Department of Education, 8–9.
2. Three recent projects funded by Title VI/F-H are aimed at addressing exactly this lacuna. Under the direction of Mary Ellen Lane, the Council of American Overseas Research Centers is evaluating the Doctoral Dissertation Research Abroad program. Maria Pennock-Roman of the Pennsylvania State University is assessing the impact of FLAS fellows. Dan Davidson of Bryn Mawr College and the American Councils for International Education is directing a study of the impact of study abroad on alumni of the programs administered by the American Council of Teachers of Russian. The last study includes recipients of Title VI/F-H and other federal fellowships.
3. Moxon, R., E. O'Shea, M. Brown, and C. Escher. 1998. "Changing U.S. Business Needs for International Expertise." In J. Hawkins, C. Haro, M. Kazanjian, G. Merkx, and D. Wiley (eds.), *International Education in the New Global Era: Proceedings of a National Policy Conference on the Higher Education Act, Title VI/F-H, and Fulbright-Hays Programs.* Los Angeles: International Studies and Overseas Programs, University of California.
4. Project EELIAS, the current GPRA-mandated evaluation effort supported by the International Education and Graduate Programs Service (IEGPS) of the U.S. Department of Education, will provide the department with the data it needs to evaluate Title VI/F-H in its entirety, including language, area, international, and international business studies.
5. For more information, see Nordin, G. 1999. "Language and the Department of Defense: Challenges for the 21st Century." *NFLC Policy Issues* 2, 1 (November).

6. For a full explication of the five sectors, see Brecht, R., with J. Caemmerer and A. Walton. 1995. *Russian in the United States: A Case Study of America's Language Needs and Capacities*. National Foreign Language Center Monograph Series. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center.
7. Nordin, "Language and the Department of Defense."
8. In the federal sector, there is a significant body of empirical research on second language acquisition carried out on foreign language learners. The DLI and FSI programs, as well as the training programs at the CIA and NSA, have sufficient numbers of subjects to provide a legitimate data source for such studies.
9. Jorden, E. and A. Walton. 1987. "Truly Foreign Languages: Instructional Challenges." In R. Lambert (ed.). *Foreign Language Instruction: A National Agenda*. Philadelphia: American Academy of Social Sciences.
10. Goodwin, C. and M. Nacht. 1988. *Abroad and Beyond: Patterns in American Overseas Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 16.
11. Brecht, R., D. Davidson, and R. Ginsberg. 1993. *Predictors of Foreign Language Gain During Study Abroad*. NFLC Occasional Papers. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center; Brecht, R., D. Davidson, and R. Ginsberg. 1995. "Predictors of Foreign Language Gain during Study Abroad." In B. Freed, (ed.), *Second Language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
12. A list of the published studies and dissertations is available at www.actr.org.
13. Brecht, R., V. Frank, and W. Rivers. 1998. "Evaluation Guide for Foreign Language Immersion Programs." Unpublished manuscript. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center.
14. Established by the National Security Education Act of 1991, the National Security Education Program funds graduate and undergraduate fellowships in languages and other areas of critical national need. Fellows are funded directly by the program and incur a service obligation to the U.S. government as a condition of the fellowship.
15. The publication resulting from one project funded by the IRS program has become a standard reference on individual learner differences in second language acquisition. See O'Malley, J. and A. Chamot. 1991. *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
16. Omaggio-Hadley gives a concise history of language teaching methodologies in the United States. See Omaggio-Hadley, A. 1993. *Teaching Language in Context*. 2d ed. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
17. For a history of the proficiency movement, see: Liskin-Gasparro, J. 1984. "The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines: A Historical Perspective." In T. Higgs (ed.), *Teaching for Proficiency: The Organizing Principle*. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.
18. A study by Language Testing International reveals that virtually all of the language testing instruments developed since 1960, including the MLA Cooperative tests, the ETS Advanced Proficiency tests, and the Simulated Oral Proficiency Interview, were developed with IRS funding. See Stansfield, C. 1995. "Evaluation of the Contributions to Foreign Language Education of the Testing Projects Funded by the International

Research and Studies Program." Unpublished manuscript. Bethesda, MD: Second Language Testing.

19. American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. 1998. *ACTFL Performance Guidelines for K–12 Learners*. Yonkers, NY: ACTFL, 1.

20. The following organizations make up NCOLCTL: American Association of Teachers of Arabic, American Association of Teachers of Korean, American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages, American Association of Teachers of Turkic Languages, American Council of Teachers of Russian, African Languages Teachers Association, Association of Teachers of Japanese, Cantonese Language Association, Chinese Language Association for Secondary-Elementary Schools, Chinese Language Teachers Association, Council of Teachers of Southeast Asian Languages, North American Association of Teachers of Czech, National Association of Professors of Hebrew, National Association of Self-Instructional Language Programs, National Council of Secondary Teachers of Japanese, North American Association for Celtic Language Teachers, Norwegian Teachers Association of North America, South Asian Language Teachers Association. For detailed information on the activities of NCOLCTL and its member organizations in the development of language learning frameworks, see the *NCOLCTL Newsletter* 1, 1 (May 1994), and the *NCOLCTL Bulletin* 2, 1 (May 1995). Information is also available on *CouncilNet*, the NCOLCTL Web site: http://www.councilnet.org.

21. The presidents, executive directors, and NCOLCTL representatives at each of the 17 NCOLCTL member organizations were asked to respond to a set of questions regarding the strength of the base structure, infrastructure, and delivery systems in each field. The survey yielded a total of 37 responses. The survey does not include the North American Association for Celtic Language Teachers, which joined NCOLCTL in September 1998. Of the respondents, 31 percent held the office of president or vice president; 44 percent were director or executive director; and 24 percent were chair of a department in an LCTL field.

22. The materials lists were obtained from Marcos, K. (ed.). 1993. "List No. 10. Foreign Language, Area, and Other International Studies. A Bibliography of Research and Instructional Materials Completed under the Higher Education Act of 1965, Title VI, Section 606." Unpublished paper, National Foreign Language Resource Center, School of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington, DC; and "International Research and Studies Program (CFDA84.017A): Funding History from 1990." Unpublished manuscript. International Education and Graduate Programs Service, Department of Education, Washington, DC.

23. The survey was administered at the 1998 NCOLCTL annual meeting in Philadelphia, in September 1998. Sixteen respondents representing or teaching eighteen languages (Arabic, Modern Greek, Hindi-Urdu, Modern Hebrew, Indonesian, Irish, Japanese, Korean, Mandarin, Nahuatl, Norwegian, Portuguese, Punjabi, Russian, Sinhala, Tagalog, Tamil, Thai, Yoruba) completed the survey.

24. McDermott, E. and W. Rivers. 1997. "Report on the Results of the NFLC Language Survey of APSIA Graduate Programs in International Studies." Unpublished manuscript. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center.

25. Marcos, "List No. 10. Foreign Language, Area, and Other International Studies."

26. For the history of the Modern Language Association's postwar survey efforts, see Parker, W. 1961. *The National Interest and Foreign Languages. A Discussion Guide for the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, Department of State. 3d ed.* Washington, DC: Department of State. For data from 1970 on, see Brod, R. 1982. *Survey of Foreign Language Course Offerings in U.S. Colleges and Universities, Fall 1980.* New York: Modern Language Association; Brod, R. (ed.). 1980. *Language Study for the 1980s: Reports of the MLA-ACLS Language Task Forces.* New York: Modern Language Association; Brod, R. 1976. "Foreign Language Enrollments in United States Colleges, Fall 1974." *Modern Language Journal.* 60, 4. 168–71; Brod, R. 1971. "Survey of Foreign Language Course Registrations in Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 1970 and Summer 1971." *ADFL Bulletin* 3: 46–50. Brod, R. and B. Huber. 1992. "Foreign Language Enrollments in United States Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 1990." *ADFL Bulletin* 23, 3: 6–10. Modern Language Association. 1996. "Fall 1995 Registrations in Foreign Languages: Preliminary Findings." New York: Modern Language Association.

27. See Parker, *The National Interest and Foreign Language, 8ff.*

28. Draper, J. 1991. *Foreign Language Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools, Fall 1989 and Fall 1990.* Yonkers, NY: American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages; Draper, J. and J. Hicks. 1996. "Foreign Language Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools, Fall 1994. Summary Report." *Foreign Language Annals* (Fall): 303–306.

29. Branaman, L. and N. Rhodes. 1999. *Foreign Language Instruction in the United States: A National Survey of Elementary and Secondary Schools.* Language in Education 93. McHenry, IL: Delta Systems.

30. See the MLA study cited in Brecht, R. and A. Walton. 1998. "National Language Needs and Capacities: A Recommendation for Action." In J. Hawkins, C. Haro, M. Kazanjian, G. Merkx, and D. Wiley (eds.), *International Education in the New Global Era: Proceedings of a National Policy Conference on the Higher Education Act, Title VI/F-H, and Fulbright-Hays Programs.* Los Angeles: International Studies and Overseas Programs, University of California.

31. We searched the Dissertations Online database for all dissertations in foreign languages (but not literature or area studies), all dissertations in the LCTLs, all language dissertations at Title VI/F-H centers, and all LCTL dissertations at Title VI/F-H centers. The search was limited to the period 1982–1995. Italian, German, Spanish, and French were excluded from the initial search.

32. Pennock-Roman, M., S. Webb, J. Wooton, D. Thurgood. 1997. "Draft Progress Report: Highlights in the Contrast between FLAS Recipients Who Completed Their PhD and All U.S. Citizens Who Completed Their PhDs in the Same Fields, 1984–1994." Progress report to the Center for International Education, USED. University Park, PA: the Pennsylvania State University.

33. Dwyer, David. 1986. *African Language Resource Handbook* (draft version). East Lansing, MI: African Studies Center, Michigan State University. Dwyer found 1,278 teachers of African languages worldwide, of whom 265 were located in the United States. Of the 265, 139 resided at institutions supported by Title VI/F-H African NRCs.

34. Merkx, G. 1998. "*Plus Ça Change*: Challenges to Graduate Education under HEA Title VI." In Hawkins et al., *International Education in the New Global Era*, 76–86.

35. These data are from the University of Texas-Austin Center for International Business Education's annual CIBE Output and Outcomes Questionnaire. The data do not distinguish the languages for which workshops have been offered.

36. When it added Part B in the 1980 reauthorization process, Congress made the following statement: "This addition reflected a judgment that federal support for international education should address economic productivity and international economic competition as well as foreign policy and national security interests." See Scarfo, Richard D. 1998. "The History of Title VI/F-H and Fulbright-Hays." In Hawkins et al., *International Education in the New Global Era*, 25.

37. These data are from the University of Texas-Austin Center for International Business Education's annual CIBE Output and Outcomes Questionnaire. Enrollments by language and level are not available.

38. For example, current estimates of the yearly gross revenue of the software localization industry—one sector of the language services and tools industry—range from $15 to $50 billion annually. For this datum, see Frievalds, J. 1996. "Consolidation in the Language Business." *Multilingual Communications and Technology* 8, 2: 28.

39. The assessment of the impact of the CIBE program overall, and with respect to economic needs for language, will be undertaken by Project EELIAS. As of this writing, performance goals and indicators have not been established for the CIBE program; nor have baseline data been determined.

40. Modern Language Association, "Fall 1995 Registrations in Foreign Languages."

41. Draper and Hicks, "Foreign Language Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools."

42. Branaman and Rhodes, *Foreign Language Instruction in the United States*.

43. Draper and Hicks, "Foreign Language Enrollments in Public Secondary Schools."

44. American Association of State Colleges and Universities. 1995. *International Activity on State College and University Campuses*. Washington, DC: AASCU.

45. U.S. Department of Education. 1999. Fact Sheet on the Educational Excellence for All Children Act of 1999. Washington, DC: Department of Education. The proposed act is contained in S. 1180 and H.R. 1960. Both bills are scheduled for consideration in spring 2000.

46. Other proposals include Leon Panetta's call to make foreign language offerings a prerequisite for federal aid to local school districts. See Panetta, L. 1999. "Foreign Language Education: If 'Scandalous' in the 20th Century, What Will It Be in the 21st Century?" Paper delivered at the Conference on Study of Foreign Languages in the New Century: Retrospective Views from The President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies and Prospects for the Future, Stanford University, June 2.

47. Taylor, H. 1998. "Americans Believe That Over Half of the World's Population Speaks English." Harris Poll 61 (November 4). New York: Louis Harris and Associates.

48. Trim, J. 2000. "The Way Ahead: European Recommendations for Language Teaching Policy Development into the Next Century." In R. Lambert and E. Shohamy (eds.), *Language Policy and Pedagogy: Essays in Honor of A. Ronald Walton*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

49. Moxon *et al.*, *Changing U.S. Business Needs*.

50. Brecht, *et al.*, *Predictors of Foreign Language Gain*; Jacobsen, M. and M. Imhoof. 1974. "Predicting Success in Learning a Second Language," *Modern Language Journal* 58: 329–336; Ehrman, M. and R. Oxford. 1995. "Cognition Plus: Correlates of Language Learning Success," *Modern Language Journal* 79: 67–89.

51. Funding for intensive summer language institutes was authorized in 1965, but funds were never appropriated. This program was eliminated in the 1998 reauthorization process.

52. The impact of these numbers is only slightly mitigated by the fact that the 64 institutions are among our nation's largest.

53. Schneider, A., with B. Burn. 1999. *Federal Funding for International Studies: Does It Help? Does It Matter? Long-Term Impacts of Federal Funding on International Studies and Foreign Language Programs: A Research Report*. Amherst, MA: Association of International Education Administrators.

54. Title VI: 60.2 percent correct; non–Title VI: 54.6 percent; p = .000. Undergraduates from Title VI–supported institutions tended to score higher on the preprogram Oral Proficiency Interview (n = 1,212; Title VI: mean rank = 543.4; non–Title VI: mean rank = 500.9; p = .002) and preprogram reading proficiency test (n = 2,111; Title VI: mean rank = 982.1; non–Title VI: mean rank = 859.5; p = .000).

55. The authors gathered data in site visits to the following NRCs: *Columbia University*: Institute for African Studies, East Asian Institute, Columbia/NYU Latin American Studies Consortium, Middle East Institute, East European, Russian, and Eurasian National Resource Center; *New York University*: Columbia/NYU Latin American Studies Consortium; *Ohio State University*: Center for African Studies, East Asian Studies Center, Middle East Studies Center, Center for Slavic and East European Studies, Center for Southeast Asian Studies; *Stanford University*: Berkeley-Stanford Center for African Studies; *University of California, Berkeley*: Berkeley-Stanford Center for African Studies, Institute of East Asian Studies, Center for Middle Eastern Studies, Center for Slavic and East European Studies, Center for South Asia Studies, Center for Southeast Asia Studies; *University of California, Los Angeles*: James S. Coleman African Studies Center, USC-UCLA Joint Center in East Asian Studies, Latin American Center, G. von Grunebaum Center for Near Eastern Studies; *University of Hawaii*: Center for Pacific Islands Studies, Center for Southeast Asian Studies; *University of New Mexico*: Latin American Institute; *University of Southern California*: USC-UCLA Joint Center in East Asian Studies; *University of Washington*: Canadian Studies Center, East Asia Language and Area Center, Russian, East European, and Central Asian Studies National Resource Center, South Asia Center, Southeast Asia Center, Middle East Center.

56. See note 21 for information on the survey methodology. The survey form appears as Appendix 3.1.

57. Schneider, A. 1995. "Memorandum to Directors of Title VI National Resource Centers re: 1994–1995 Budgets." Agency memorandum. Washington, DC: Center for International Education, U.S. Department of Education.

CHAPTER 4

National Security and National Language Need

"Language is critical to the United States carrying out its interests abroad."

—Former Secretary of State Lawrence Eagleburger,
Address to the 40th Anniversary Conference
on Title VI of the Higher Education Act[1]

The specification of language needs for the breadth of American national security interests—including political, economic, and social interests—has proven to be a daunting task, one often clouded by contradictory claims. On the one hand, Americans at every level of education share an abiding misconception that English is a *lingua franca* suitable for all countries, all occasions and all tasks.[2] On the other hand, alarming assertions that the United States faces a crisis in its supply of competence in foreign languages remain largely unsupported and, as a result, are inevitably viewed as self-interested when presented by representatives of the language community.[3] The problem is that specifying the need for multiple language competence in the United States is complicated by the scope, complexity, and dynamism of American national security interests. However, insofar as Title VI of the Higher Education Act was created to address exactly that need and must be evaluated against its record in doing so, the task must be undertaken regardless of the difficulties.

This chapter has four principal parts. We begin with a short discussion of how the present study differs from its predecessors. Next, we offer a general discussion of the language situation in the world and the parameters used for characterizing national language needs. In the next section we make a first attempt at documenting the language needs of the United States. The chapter ends with a summary and recommendations for research.

The Distinctiveness of the Present Report

This report differs in three respects from previous efforts. First, it is grounded in the empirical investigation of language needs among large-scale consumers of language skills and tools. Authoritative assertions of needs for language proficiency complement evidence of the willingness of government agencies and private firms to pay for language services. Prior reports on language needs—including the report of the Presidential Commission on Language and Area Studies, William Riley Parker's reports on the national interest and language, and the arguments for foreign language needs made by Senator Paul Simon—all correctly point out the general lack of language competence in the United States.[4] However, that lack of competence is phrased mostly in terms of supply, while need is addressed only anecdotally. Even reports purporting to detail language needs across the federal government contain little empirical evidence of the needs adduced. There is a good reason for this: Language needs are difficult to document empirically.

Second, our examination of language needs encompasses all major sectors of the economy, reflecting the basic educational mission of Title VI/F-H and providing at least the outlines of a picture of national language needs. Earlier studies have been restricted to the consideration of needs in one sector or sub-sector of the economy.[5]

Finally, the current report is grounded in a framework for the analysis of language as a market commodity. The Strategic Market Forces Framework introduced in Chapter 2 provides an analytical tool that embraces short- and long-term phenomena as well as producers and consumers of language services. It also provides a theoretical grounding in the economics of language and language planning. The framework allows the long-term consumer phenomenon of need to be related to its tactical exemplar, demand, and to the corresponding producer phenomenon of capacity. Moreover, this framework addresses the critics' reliance on the apparently healthy functioning of the language marketplace: "If there were real needs for language, then demand would have been expressed and supply created to meet it." As discussed in Chapter 5, the framework reveals disjunctions in the market and targets them for intervention. It further identifies capacity as a strategic target and advocates a policy intervention linking need directly with capacity, using documented shortfalls in capacity and supply, or unmet demand and need, as evidence for the dysfunction of the language market.

Language Competence in Our Changed World

In Chapter 2 we sketched briefly the political, social, and economic changes that have shaped the new world of global interaction and communication. In this section we will illustrate those changes with three cases of national language need, each deriving from the tumultuous developments of the last decade. From these cases, we will describe the general characteristics of national language needs, which lead us to the assertion that those needs at the beginning of the twenty-first century are qualitatively different from those faced by the United States during the past 50 years.

Case 1: The Caspian Basin

The emergence of the Caspian Basin in the last decade as a region of vital importance represents a typical example of expanding U.S. interests. American engagement in the Caspian Basin reflects the dynamic development of these expanding concerns, because a decade ago the eight former Soviet Caucasian and Central Asian republics (Armenia, Georgia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Kirghizstan, and Tajikistan) did not even exist as independent entities, at least as far as the outside world was concerned. These eight emerging nations, with a combined population of 70 million people—together with their neighbors, Iran, Turkey, Afghanistan, Iraq, Russia, and China—form a constellation of nations, ethnicities, and languages located in the Caspian Basin or having direct vital interests in that area.

This Caspian configuration represents a far more complex linguistic and cultural challenge to U.S. needs and interests than did those of the Cold War, with its essentially bilateral and bilingual (English-Russian) framework.

The confirmation in the late 1980s of the Caspian Basin as the location of the world's third largest oil and gas reserves has focused U.S. attention there in a way that perhaps no other factor, short of war, could do. Those reserves, conservatively estimated at 100 billion barrels of oil and an equivalent amount of natural gas, represent only a fraction of the oil and gas reserves found in the Persian Gulf. However, unlike other known reserves of this magnitude, those of the Caspian Basin are open to exploitation by western, Russian, and Chinese companies.[7] The Caspian Basin has become "a new kind of post-Cold War battleground on which three old military rivals—China, Russia and the United States—vie for influence, markets, and access to resources."[8] To these rivals can be added other nations with an expressed interest in the resources of the region, such as France, the United Kingdom, and Japan.[9]

The opportunities offered by newfound accessibility are, however, mitigated by the complexities of moving the oil to market. The decisions to build pipelines through one country or another are rife with political, social, and economic consequences. Accordingly, America's interests in the region have become more comprehensive and extensive. In addition to energy, our national interests there include space (for example, American telecommunications satellites carried by Russian rockets launched in Kazakhstan); military cooperation (joint peacekeeping exercises by American and Central Asian troops),[10] and technology transfer (transfer of Chinese missile technology to Iran; transfer of Russian nuclear technology to Iran and Iraq). These considerations involve many industries, federal agencies, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). The extent and comprehensiveness of U.S. interests are reflected

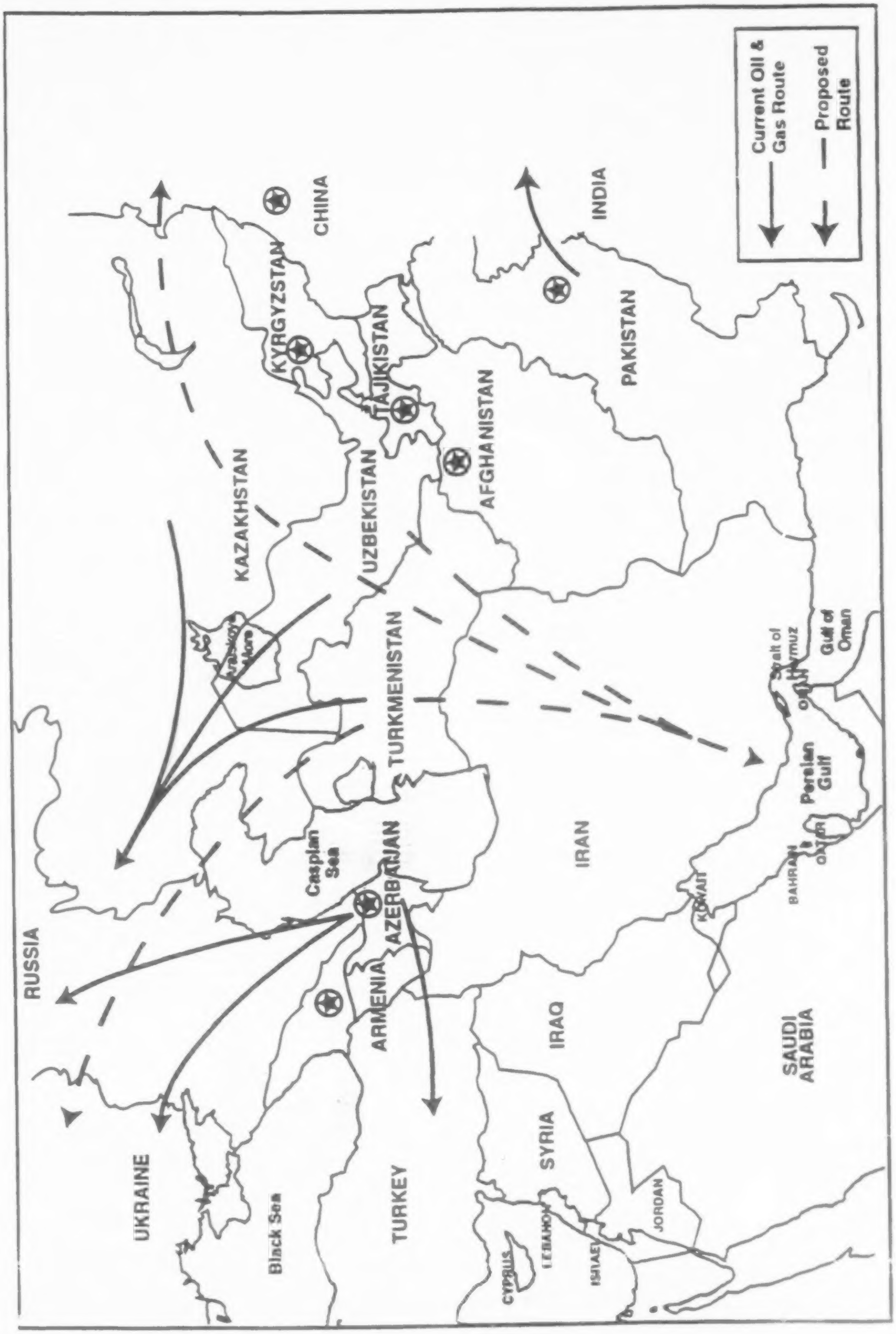
Current Oil & Gas Route
Proposed Route
RUSSIA
UKRAINE
Black Sea
TURKEY
ARMENIA
AZERBAIJAN
Caspian Sea
TURKMENISTAN
Aralskoye More
KAZAKHSTAN
UZBEKISTAN
KYRGYZSTAN
TAJIKISTAN
CHINA
AFGHANISTAN
PAKISTAN
INDIA
IRAN
IRAQ
KUWAIT
BAHRAIN
QATAR
Persian Gulf
Strait of Hormuz
Gulf of Oman
SAUDI ARABIA
SYRIA
JORDAN
ISRAEL
LEBANON
CYPRUS

Figure 4.1. The Caspian Basin: Language and Conflict

Source: Levine, S. 1998. "Instability by the Barrelful? Central Asia's Coming Oil Bonanza and Its Consequences. The New York Times, Tuesday, February 17, 1998, p. D1.

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in the fact that President Clinton established the post of Special Ambassador to the Caspian Basin, with Richard Morningstar as the first appointment.

As a result of this single expansion of U.S. interests, the post–Cold War linguistic needs of the nation are already far more complex than were those of the last 50 years. The situation is complex not only in terms of sheer number of local languages (for instance, there are nearly 50 distinct languages in the Northern Caucasus and Transcaucasia, through which at least one pipeline will pass), but also in terms of the diversity of language groups in the region (Slavic, Indo-Iranian, Turkic, North Caucasian, Kartvelian—all distinct language families). Before 1985, knowledge of Russian was sufficient for interactions in this area; in the future it is certain that knowledge of Russian alone—while important—will not suffice. The dissolution of Russian hegemony and the consequent lessening in importance of Russian as the regional *lingua franca*, along with the resurgence of ethnic loyalties, indicate the importance of local languages in the Caspian Basin. In fact, CEOs of U.S. oil companies operating in Kazakhstan report that they are seeking Kazakh language training for their on-site managers, as they have exhausted the supply of Russian-speaking workers in the oil fields.[11] Finally, the political ramifications of the linguistic situation are also complex, as many of the region's ethnic groups and languages overlap existing national borders. For instance, more Azeris live in Iran than in Azerbaijan; many Uzbeks live in Afghanistan; Turkic languages from Ankara to Almaty are mutually intelligible.

The criticality of linguistic capacity for meeting national needs in the Caspian Basin cannot be underestimated. Yet at present, the nation's capacity for the Caspian Basin languages can only be characterized as weak, or in some cases, absent. All the languages indigenous to the Caspian Basin are among the least commonly taught languages in the United States, with fewer than 1,000 students studying any one language.[12] Many of the Caspian Basin languages are rarely or never taught in the United States (Uighur, Kirghiz, Azeri), and few, if any, curricular materials exist in these languages to aid the self-directed learner.

Those Caspian Basin languages that are taught in the United States depend nearly entirely on Title VI/F-H support. For example, all the graduate students learning Armenian, Georgian, Kazakh, Tajik, Uzbek, and the Turkic languages in 1995 did so at Title VI National Resource Centers (NRCs). Without Title VI/F-H support, the nation's capacity to learn Caspian Basin languages might very well not exist, and thus the ability to effectively operate in that area would be critically affected.

Case 2: Worldwide Presence of the Military

A 1998 series of reports in the *Washington Post* details the expansion of U.S. military engagement abroad. The U.S. military now operates in more nations than ever before, performing diverse, often nontraditional, missions requiring more interaction with foreign military personnel and local populations. With missions including peacekeeping, humanitarian aid, nation-building, and training of foreign military personnel, more than 40,000 U.S. troops have been stationed in more than 110 nations (excluding NATO countries and Japan) since 1991, including every nation in Latin America, all but 2 of the 15 successor states to the USSR, some 40 nations in Africa, and many nations in South and Southeast Asia.[13] More than 140 languages are spoken in these nations.[14] Furthermore, these missions are in addition to large-scale deployments in Somalia, the Persian Gulf, and the Balkans, each of which generated surges in demand for particular languages—Somali, Gulf and Iraqi Arabic, Serbian, and Croatian.[15] In the case of the Balkans and the Gulf States, the needs continue, with an estimated $25 million having been spent to date on training American service people in Serbian and Croatian alone.[16] With the exception of Spanish and French (an official language in much of West Africa), all of these military missions involve languages that are among the less commonly taught languages (LCTLs) in the United States.

This expansion of the military mission not only requires more languages, but also it involves a qualitative leap in the kinds of tasks that military personnel are expected to perform. In the past, linguists assigned to Army units were expected to perform in the "interpretive mode," providing translation of written and broadcast texts, as well as aiding in the interrogation of prisoners. Now, the burden has shifted dramatically to include "interactive" and "presentational" functions. Military linguists must interact with their allied military counterparts as well as civilians, performing communication-based tasks for missions as far-ranging as humanitarian aid, countering terrorism, and supporting democratic elections. Not only do these tasks involve a much broader range of skills, but also the linguist must command the lexicon and pragmatic strategies of many more domains than the traditional military one.

This enlargement of the number of LCTLs required by the broader world presence of the military is expensive, given the low level of baseline demand for any one of them and the time required to learn many of them.[17] The number of Kazakh or Fula speakers required by the military at any one time is low; however, the Defense Foreign Language Program is expected to maintain instruction in some 80 languages. The result is a major problem for language programs in the U.S. government, with many agencies simply unable or unwilling to maintain capacity in "low-density" languages, particularly given the exigencies of annual budgeting.[18] This situation results in the outsourcing to vendors in the private sector of instruction in many of the least commonly taught languages.

Much of the available capacity for teaching LCTLs in the federal agencies and among private vendors depends to a great extent upon the nation's Title VI/F-H-supported universities, particularly for African, South Asian, Central Asian, and Southeast Asian languages. The academic experts at these institutions do the basic linguistic and descriptive cultural research, as well as the pedagogical and cognitive research, that advances our understanding of the teaching and learning of these languages. In addition, academic scholars and teachers produce many of the instructional materials and tools used in the other sectors, although much development is done in the federal sector as well.[19]

Case 3: Globalization of the Market Place

Thomas Friedman opens *The Lexus and the Olive Tree* with an anecdote about the globalization of finance. The devaluation of the Thai Baht in late 1997, wrote Friedman, "triggered a general flight of capital out of virtually all the Southeast Asian emerging markets . . . . The Asian-triggered slump in oil prices," he continued, "made it harder and harder for the Russian government to pay the interest and principal on its T-bills."[20] The International Monetary Fund, preoccupied with the Asian crisis and particularly nervous with the political developments in Russia, resisted investing more cash in Russia. The result was the total collapse of the Russian economy and huge losses for the hedge funds and banks invested in Russia. The losses obliged the hedge funds and other trading firms to raise cash to pay back their bankers by selling assets in financially sound countries. As a result, countries like Brazil and Korea suffered, and the U.S. bond market exploded as a place to park dollars safely. The fall of interest rates triggered by the flight to bonds caused a fear that Americans might rush to refinance their mortgages, which in turn undermined market strength of banks in cities across the United States.

Friedman also had other things in mind besides globalism, as the title of his book makes clear.

> *[H]alf of the world seemed to be emerging from the Cold War intent on building a better Lexus, dedicated to modernizing, streamlining and privatizing their economies in order to thrive in the system of globalization. And half of the world—sometimes half the same country—was still caught up in the fight over who owns which olive tree.*

For Friedman, the olive tree represents "everything that roots us, anchors us, identifies us and locates us in this world—whether it be belonging to a family, a community, a tribe, a nation, a religion or, most of all, a place called home." In a word, the olive tree represents *culture*.

> *Few things are more enraging to people than to have their identity or their sense of home stripped away. They will die for it, kill for it, sing for it, write poetry for it and novelize about it. Because without a sense of home and belonging, life becomes barren and rootless. And life as a tumbleweed is no life at all.*

Understanding this sense of identity and belonging—that is, understanding culture—is as important to operating successfully in this globalized environment as is knowing how to trade stocks over the Internet or send information via the World Wide Web to colleagues working on disease control in the Congo. This sense of the importance of culture is well appreciated by all who are experienced in the global environment, and it is a lesson that is very quickly acquired by novices. More to the point here, if cultural understanding leaps out as a basic skill for globalized interactions, its most salient manifestation is *language*. A business negotiator may note in a meeting in Seoul that Koreans tend to use a more indirect communication style, with few, if any, negative expressions like "no"— behavior that may cause significant misunderstandings in serious negotiations. In Tokyo, one notices that Japanese tend to use implicit and ambiguous phrases and to prefer less assertive expressions such as "maybe," "perhaps, " and "somewhat," in contrast to the American fondness for explicit and categorical words like "certainly," "absolutely," and "positively."

To illustrate concretely the impact of globalization on language, the market abroad for American goods, services, and investment has increased, but so has competition from other countries. The phenomenon of *localization* has arisen because products, services, and industries derive a competitive advantage from marketing, selling, or operating in the language and according to the cultural norms of the target market. As an example, the software localization industry is now a $15 to $20 billion yearly enterprise worldwide.[21] In 1997 the U.S. software industry translated approximately 30 percent of its products into more than 40 languages; it is estimated that 60 percent of its products will have been translated into more than 80 languages by 2005.[22]

The still extant predecessors of globalization are the regional trading blocs—the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), and the European Union (EU)—which have changed the rules of the game with regard to language. Because these organizations are charged with regulating trade to the advantage of members, they make demands on both internal and external trading partners to provide products and services in the various languages of member end-users, rather than in English or another *lingua franca*. For example, the Barcelona and Madrid accords of the European Union require that instructions for machinery and labels for consumer goods be provided in the language of the market where the product is sold.[23] Whereas English, French, and German once sufficed for most of the Western European market, now more than a dozen languages are required.[24] Similarly, NAFTA now requires labeling in English, French, and Spanish.

The Sea Change in National Language Needs in the United States

Prior crises in language needs arose because of an acute external danger with a readily identifiable linguistic deficiency: German in World War I, Japanese and German in World War II, and Russian in the Cold War.[25] The crisis of the late 1970s and early 1980s can be seen in some ways as an extension of the fears aroused by *Sputnik* in 1958, with perhaps a different catalyst in the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan and the Iranian revolution. Without exception, these crises provoked the recognition of *political/military* language needs, although politicians and language educators also asserted the relevance of language to international economic competitiveness during this period.[26]

What makes today different? Does the United States have genuine and documentable needs for language? More importantly, is the linguistic situation in today's world really different from that of the past?

The evidence points to a affirmative answer. The end of the Cold War and the emergence of the digital era have brought the United States face to face with a set of phenomena that characterize the end of the twentieth century: globalization, democratization, and the preeminence of the United States as the world's lone superpower.

- In Thomas Friedman's words, *globalization* "involves the inexorable integration of markets, nation-states and technologies to a degree never witnessed before—in a way that is enabling individuals, corporations and nation-states to reach around the world farther, faster, deeper and cheaper than ever before"[27]
- *Democratization* refers to the worldwide trend of peoples to insist on their rights to self-rule and unique identity, whether it be in the former Soviet Union, South Africa, Yugoslavia, Turkey, Iraq, Tibet, Sri Lanka, Hawaii, New Zealand, or hundreds of other locations around the globe. The Caspian Sea Basin illustrates the democ-ratization phenomenon, as a whole new set of players from the former Soviet Union enters the world political and economic scene
- The status of the *United States as the world's sole superpower* entails a military world presence. That new status resulted from the fall of the Soviet Union and has been enhanced recently by the conflict in Kosovo

These changes, as we shall see below, have brought about a qualitative change in the language needs of this country. John Trim, former director of language projects for the Council of Europe, points out that the status of the United States as the world's only superpower, engaged with more of the world than any other nation, places an onerous burden on the language economy of the United States, as America is required to maintain capacity in languages sufficient to communicate with virtually all the world.[28] A cursory examination of the three cases provided at the beginning of this chapter confirms this requirement for language: troops in more than 100 nations and Caspian Basin interests involving more than a dozen nations and many more ethnicities, each with a different language; and trade interests with every major economic bloc, if not with every country in the world. Further examples abound: Negotiations on global warming involve countries from around the world. International law enforcement focuses on efforts by the Russian mafia to link with Colombian drug lords.[29] The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention track deadly strains of disease through dozens of cultures in central Africa. The question of where and when new pipelines will be built in the Caspian Sea Basin involves nations from Turkey to China, Iran to Russia, as well as the United States, France, Germany, Japan, and Britain. In each of these cases, the interaction of the private and public sectors requires cross-cultural communications expertise across a broad range of countries and languages. The end result of this dynamic situation is that nearly every nation in the world (and far more ethnic groups than nations) has the potential to generate language needs for the United States.

The rapidly changing political, social, and economic situation in the world makes it necessary for the United States to maintain a constant capacity in a broad range of languages, as there is no way of predicting exactly which languages will thrust themselves into the language marketplace, or when. Although the concept of global coverage for the United States is hardly new, having emerged after World War II, today's combination of globalization, democratization, and lone superpower status requires a degree of linguistic capacity and sophistication that is unprecedented in our nation's history.

Previously, language needs often could be met by the use of a global language (English, French, and Russian) or a regional language such as Modern Standard Arabic, Kiswahili, or Mandarin—all of which served as the *lingua franca* of significant areas of the world. While these languages continue to have a significant role to play, local languages have assumed new cultural, economic, and political importance.[30]

It is not only the number of languages and dialects with which the nation must deal. The range of subject-matter domains that require language competence is itself unprecedented and growing. The expanded missions of the U.S. military place it in close and continuous contact with civilian populations and military partners everywhere, requiring more interactivity in a broader range of tasks in more languages than during the Cold War. The shift to a service-based economy, and the concurrent shift to the export of services rather than goods, have created demand for linguistic competence in areas such as architecture, law, international development, management and consulting, and many other professions far in excess of the levels of the mid-1980s and in far more languages.[31] For example, the Caspian Basin situation creates economic needs for language, related in particular to energy extraction, but it has ramifications in the political domain as well, and, to a certain extent, in the social domain (related to environmental crises associated with the Aral Sea). Military involvement abroad falls into the political domain, but many military missions overlap with social domains such as international law enforcement, humanitarian aid, and nation building.

It can therefore be stated with some assurance that demand for language services in the government and private sectors is indeed significantly higher than in the past. In addition, the perception in the private sector of the competitive advantage to international business of localizing products and services is stronger than ever, a natural development of the unprecedented percentage of enterprises doing business internationally. The clearest indication of that perception is the growth of the language services industry, now valued at more than $20 billion worldwide.[32] The evidence strongly suggests that language needs now result less from intermittent and limited situations than from ongoing requirements for successful participation across the international arena. In addition, the need now and for the foreseeable future is for hundreds of languages, not just a few *lingua franca*. Finally, the needs exist in all domains, in every aspect of society, for the most common as well as extraordinary tasks.

Add to this picture of recent developments around the globe the increasing diversity of the U.S. population, and one is left with the conclusion that the language needs of this country have increased significantly over the past decade. Indeed, it may be the case that a sea change is taking place in this country with regard to language, a shift that will have to be accommodated by all sectors that contribute to the nation's language capacity: the academic, the federal, the private, the heritage, and the overseas.

Indicators of National Language Need

We are keenly aware of the difficulty of characterizing national language need. Indeed, the fact that it has not been done before testifies to the complexity of the task. Accordingly, we have set for ourselves the relatively modest task of providing a set of indicators of national need. The indicators point to specific needs but lack the power of indisputable proof. They are classified according to two parameters:

- The *domains* in which need occurs
- The different *means of expression* of need

We have categorized the indications of need into three traditional domains: political/military, economic, and social, understanding that in many situations the domains intersect and overlap. Under the political/military heading we include such examples as the linguistic requirements relevant for the expansion of U.S. joint training with the armed forces of other nations in critical world areas. The economic domain includes the activities of U.S. corporations and other institutions in the global marketplace, such as the language tasks involved in enforcing trade agreements between the United States and Japan. Under the rubric of social needs we place the efforts of U.S. public and private agencies to deal with global problems such as disease control, environmental protection, and research in space. An example is the evolving policy on language in the new international space station.

We categorize the various modes by which need is expressed into five categories:

- Documented actual demand
- Documented shortfalls in supply

- Documented shortfalls in capacity
- Asserted needs and demand
- Declared policy decisions

These categories can be arranged in a hierarchy, somewhat similar to that provided for the Government Performance and Results Act in Chapter 2.

In this table it is assumed that the categories represent a hierarchy of documentation, with actual demand being the most concrete and persuasive. Documented shortfalls in supply and demonstrated unmet demand would be next in persuasive power, diminished in their importance by the fact that absence rather than presence is documented. The third type of evidence is difficult to document, because it turns on the abstract concept of national capacity.[33] The last two categories, asserted need and declared policy, have little empirical evidence behind them other than the experience of experts and policy makers.

This scheme is intended to provide a comprehensive framework for the wide spectrum of indicators of national language need that ground the Strategic Market Forces Framework. Skeptical readers are presented with an array of different kinds of data with clear indications of their nature and reliability, rather than a set of more or less self-interested declarations about the need for foreign language competency. The result is, we believe, a credible case for the existence of significant needs for language in the United States. We caution, however, that a rigorous scientific case is not made here; for, while the evidence is empirical, it has not been subjected to a study in which national need as a dependent variable is analyzed against a set of specified independent variables. We hope that studies will be done in which language is considered as a commodity or durable good and costs and benefits are calculated at the societal and individual levels.[34] The NFLC, in collaboration with the Center for Quality Assurance in International Education, plans to undertake just such a case study of the role of language in the international practice of architecture, starting in spring 2000.

Finally, the categorization of needs contained here represents one approach to determining the criticality of need and the advisability and targeting of investment. Resources can be efficiently calculated and targeted only where there are shortfalls in supply and demonstrable costs associated with unmet demand, or where there are demonstrated deficits in capacity to meet strategic needs.

The section that follows presents illustrative cases of *external* (non-domestic) language needs of the United States (Table 4.2). The cases are organized by mode of expression (actual demand, asserted demand, shortfall in supply, shortfall in capacity, asserted need, and strategic policy need) with consistent reference to domain of need (political/military, economic, social).[35] It should be borne in mind that several cases cut across the different domains of need. Finally, we note that some cases have been developed from a single data source, where others may incorporate several data sources. Taken as a whole, these data sources represent only a sample of the

Table 4.1. Modes of Expression of Need for Language Competence in the United States

Category	Definition	Examples
Actual Demand	Documented current demand for language expertise	A 1985 survey showing demand for translators in 49 languages at 19 different federal agencies, with several priority languages in high demand (among which were Russian, Japanese, German, French, Chinese, and Arabic)[a]
Shortfalls in Supply	Documentation that actual demand has gone unmet	The testimony of a Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) official in September 1997 that the agency lacked sufficient Russian language expertise to combat organized crime groups from the former Soviet Union
Shortfalls in Capacity	Documented instances where projected strategic need or demand exceeds long-term ability to meet those needs	The National Foreign Language Center's 1998 national survey of LCTL fields, which showed that for LCTLs with current enrollment levels of fewer than 10,000 (such as Arabic, Vietnamese, and Thai), a majority of experts in the field concluded that inadequate resources existed for the development, publication, and distribution of teaching and learning materials[b]
Asserted Needs and Demand	Strong assertions of national language needs made by experts and other influential national figures	Statements by the House Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence that the U.S. intelligence community faced problems of "a largely inexperienced work force, lack of foreign language skills and limited in-country familiarity"[c]
Declared National Policy	Official declarations of the nation's strategic foreign policy	The Clinton administration's 1998 policy for enhancing economic ties with Africa[d]

Notes:

[a] Crump, T. 1985. *Translations in the Federal Government 1985*. Alexandria, VA: American Translators Association.

[b] For the survey instrument, see Appendix 3.1. For detailed results, see Chapter 3, in which we discuss this survey in light of national capacity in the LCTLs.

[c] Pincus, W. 1997. "Intelligence Community Faulted by House Panel," *Washington Post*, June 19, A19.

[d] Hamilton, M. and L. Duke. 1998. "Africa's Potential as Trade Partner Attracts Corporate Interest," *The Washington Post*, March 23, A14; Gugliotta, G. 1998. "Africa Trade Bill Passes House; Legislation to Liberalize Policy Overcomes Strong Opposition," *Washington Post*, March 12, A4; Baker, P. 1998. "President Unwraps Africa Policy, Stressing U.S. Role as Investor Instead of Donor, "*Washington Post*, June 18, A18.

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Table 4.2. Cases of National External Language Needs

Domain	Documented Demand	Documented Deficit in Supply	Asserted Need/Demand	Policy Decision
Political/ Military	Agencies of the U.S. government FSI testing data DOD DTRA NSA DLI CIA FBIS ONI Secret Service Library of Congress divisions NASA BATF	Proficiency outputs of U.S. academic sector FBIS Serbo-Croatian contingency training U.S. troops abroad Foreign Service	Coast Guard SOCOM DCI FLC reports NSEP language needs survey FILR-NFLC language needs task force House Select Committee report Jeremiah report Public Diplomacy Commission report USAF global engagement policy	*National Security Strategy for a New Century* *United States Strategic Plan for International Affairs* Caspian Basin Sub-Saharan Africa South Asia
Economic	Language Testing International Classified advertisements	Trade with Japan: US Chamber of Commerce U.S. Patent and Trademark Office Microsoft	Language services market Big Four accounting firms Intercultural skills among engineers Internet/Web Harris poll Corporate hiring practices CQAIE survey	———
Social	EOIR SSA NIH Library of Congress U.S. Postal Service	Peace Corps FDA	FBI DEA	———

kinds of evidence that can be (or have been) collected in documenting actual language needs. Because Title VI/F-H is not charged with meeting domestic language needs, a wealth of domestic data is excluded from consideration in this report.

Documented Demand for Language

Political/Military

In this section, we first present preliminary results of an on-going survey of language needs in federal agencies. We then present language needs at specific federal agencies, with data drawn from the survey and from other sources.

Survey of Federal Agencies

The task force on U.S. government language needs of the Federal Interagency Language Roundtable (FILR) and the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) is an ad hoc body of senior federal officials responsible for determining language requirements. The task force has asserted that demand for language in the U.S. government is rapidly expanding in terms of the languages required, the tasks to be performed, and the agencies and offices encountering such requirements and tasks.[36] In response to the task force, the NFLC, with the assistance of Theodore Crump, began a study of translation and interpretation requirements in the federal government. Crump, who heads the translation division at the library of the National Institutes of Health (NIH), has identified federal managers who are responsible for meeting their agency's language requirements. Using a structured interview protocol, Crump interviews managers to determine which languages are required, how language needs are met, and, to the extent possible, which needs go unmet. Unclassified data from the survey will be published.[37] The results of that study are presented throughout this chapter.

Crump's survey now includes more than 70 cabinet departments and independent federal agencies. Additional agencies, such as the U.S. Air Force Foreign Area Officer Program, have language needs beyond translation and interpretation. The list below is thus an *indicator* of the scope of federal language requirements, but it is by no means exhaustive.

The following federal agencies have confirmed language needs. Where agencies have provided data on their language needs, the languages are listed. Several agencies have confirmed needs but have not yet been surveyed. Additional agencies will be surveyed throughout 2000.

Foreign Service Institute Testing Data

The Foreign Service Institute administered 4,521 Oral Proficiency Interviews (OPIs) during FY 1997, an increase of 2,636 over FY 1996, when 1,885 OPIs were

Table 4.3. Federal Agencies with Needs for Translation and Interpretation Services

Agencies	**Languages Required**
AGENCIES OF THE EXECUTIVE OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT	
Central Intelligence Agency Foreign Broadcast Information Service	Arabic, Balkan languages, Chinese, Croatian, Eastern European languages, Farsi, French, German, Greek, Japanese, Korean, Russian, Serbian, Spanish, Thai, Vietnamese
DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE	
National Agricultural Library Foreign Agricultural Service Food and Drug Administration	
DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE	
U.S. and Foreign Commercial Service Bureau of the Census National Technical Information Service Patent and Trademark Office National Institute of Standards and Technology	German, French, Italian, Dutch, Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, Portuguese, Romanian, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, Finnish, Bulgarian, Russian, Polish, Czech, Arabic, Korean, Indonesian, African languages, Ukrainian
DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE	
Office of the Secretary of Defense Defense Security Cooperation Agency Defense Prisoner of War and Missing Persons Office Defense Technical Information Center Defense Intelligence Agency Defense Threat Reduction Agency National Security Agency National Imagery and Mapping Agency Department of the Air Force Air Intelligence Agency Department of the Army U.S. Army Intelligence and Security Command National Ground Intelligence Center Department of the Navy Office of Naval Intelligence Marine Corps Intelligence Activity	Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Farsi, French, German, Albanian, Azeri, Serbian, Bosnian, Croatian, Macedonian, Kurdish, Dari, Spanish variants, Swedish, Polish, Arabic, Ukrainian, Dutch, Czech, Chinese, Japanese

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Table 4.3. continued

Agencies	Languages Required
DEPARTMENT OF ENERGY	
Department of Energy Library Sandia National Laboratories Technical Library E.O. Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory Library Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory Library Los Alamos National Laboratory Office of Intelligence Office of Counterintelligence	
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES	
National Institutes of Health Centers for Disease Control and Prevention	Russian, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Serbian, Croatian, Polish, Dutch, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, Ukrainian, Bulgarian, Czech, Slovak, Slovenian, Latin, Portuguese, Chinese, Finnish, Catalan, Hungarian, Japanese, Thai, Greek, Korean, Romanian, Arabic, Hebrew, Cantonese, Bengali, Punjabi, Hindi, Urdu, Gujarati, Tamil, Sindi, Malayalam, Kannada, Cambodian, Haitian Creole, Amharic, Farsi, Lithuanian, Barati, Turkish, Vietnamese
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR	
Bureau of Reclamation Technical Service Center	
DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE	
Office of Special Investigation Federal Bureau of Investigation Office of Intelligence Policy and Review Drug Enforcement Administration Executive Office for Immigration Review Immigration and Naturalization Service U.S. National Central Bureau - Interpol National Drug Intelligence Center	140 languages, including Chinese, Cantonese, Arabic, Farsi, Japanese, Russian, Spanish, Vietnamese
DEPARTMENT OF STATE	
Office of Language Services US. Foreign Service Arms Control and Disarmament Agency Bureau of Information	More than 60 languages, including so-called "incentive languages": Albanian, Amharic, Armenian, Azeri, Bengali, Bulgarian, Burmese, Croatian, Czech, Dari,

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Table 4.3. continued

Agencies	**Languages Required**
DEPARTMENT OF STATE, CONTINUED	
International Broadcasting Bureau	Estonian, Farsi, Hebrew, Hindi, Hungarian, Kazakh, Khmer, Kyrgyz, Lao, Latvian, Lithuanian, Mongolian, Nepali, Pashto, Sinhala, Slovak, Tagalog, Tajik, Tamil, Thai, Turkish, Turkmen, Ukrainian, Urdu, Uzbek, Arabic, Mandarin, Cantonese, Japanese, Korean[a]
DEPARTMENT OF TREASURY	
Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms Internal Revenue Service U.S. Customs Service U.S. Secret Service	14 languages, including German, French, Italian, Arabic, Hausa, Russian, Spanish
INDEPENDENT AGENCIES	
U.S. Agency for International Development Environmental Protection Agency Inter-American Foundation Library of Congress Congressional Research Service Federal Research Division National Aeronautics and Space Administration National Science Foundation Overseas Private Investment Corporation Social Security Administration Peace Corps U.S. Postal Service U.S. International Trade Commission	Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Tibetan, Arabic, French, Portuguese, Catalan, Galician, Dutch, Tagalog, Arabic, Hmong, Polish, Bulgarian, Italian, Russian, Slovak, Ukrainian, Romanian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Serbian, Croatian, Norwegian, Finnish, Swedish, Hebrew, Yiddish, Ladino, Aramaic, Judeo-Arabic, Syriac, Coptic, Ethiopian, Hausa, Swahili, Zulu, Afrikaans, Somali, Turkish, Balinese, Batak, Breton, Georgian, Greenlandic, Hawaiian, Malagasy, African languages, Malay, Maltese, Polynesian languages, Pashto, Urdu, Welsh, Belorussian, Vietnamese, Gaelic, Irish, Khmer, Lao, Lapp, Macedonian, Lithuanian, Slovenian, Somali, Latin, Albanian, Chinese, Danish, Estonian, Farsi, Icelandic, Korean, Central Asian languages

Note:

[a] "Incentive languages": The departments of state and defense offer supplemental pay to employees who speak key languages so as to retain those employees in government service.

Source: Crump, T. Forthcoming. *Translation and Interpretation in the U.S. Government.* Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center; and additional research by Richard Brecht and William Rivers.

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administered. FSI administers OPIs to its own students and to several other government agencies, including the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms (BATF), the Customs Service, the Internal Revenue Service, and the Environmental Protection Agency.[38] A breakdown by language is not available to the public. It should be noted as well that other agencies administer language tests to government employees, including the Defense Language Institute (DLI) and the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), but we have no data at present on the demand for testing by such agencies.

Department of Defense

The Department of Defense is perhaps the largest consumer of language services in the world, with some 30,000 jobs requiring foreign language proficiency in roughly 70 languages. Yearly production of linguists at the DLI averages some 3,000 personnel.[39] Among the languages most in demand are Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Spanish, and the languages of southeastern Europe. Languages are required for intelligence functions, special forces, humanitarian aid, peacekeeping, and joint exercise operations.[40] As an indicator of demand (as well as of potential supply deficits), the military and DOD civilian agencies offer incentive pay for linguists to remain in the employ of the department, fearing the loss of qualified personnel to the private sector. DOD has made a policy of providing incentive pay to occupational categories of high priority and in categories in which it has difficulty with recruitment or retention. The only other occupational category with standing incentives is pilots. We note that the success of these incentives is, at best, mixed, at least according to senior DOD officials.[41] Language demand in specific DOD elements is broken out in the following paragraphs.

Defense Threat Reduction Agency. The Defense Threat Reduction Agency (DTRA)—created in 1998 as a result of the merger of the On Site Inspection Agency, the Defense Special Weapons Agency, Defense Technical Security Agency, and other DOD elements—addresses problems of proliferation and weapons of mass destruction. The DTRA has ongoing language demands for Russian, requiring high proficiency levels, for tasks deriving from the DTRA's mission of verification of nonproliferation and arms reduction treaties. DTRA employs more than 150 linguists for this purpose.[42]

National Security Agency. The National Security Agency (NSA) is one of the largest consumers of language in the federal government. While exact figures are classified, the agency recruits individuals with competence in Slavic, Middle Eastern, and Asian languages, with the additional desired requirements of in-country experience and in-depth cultural knowledge.

Defense Language Institute. Although the DLI does not have requirements for language expertise (except for the requirements it imposes on its faculty), the *output* of DLI is instructive as an indication of demand. DLI provides language training to individuals sponsored by their employer, generally other DOD agencies. For the past several years, DLI has produced some 3,000 graduates per year in 24 languages, with Chinese, Arabic, Spanish, Russian, and the Balkan languages having the greatest enrollments.[43]

Central Intelligence Agency

Although the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) will not release figures on the number of employees with language skills, or the exact languages required, the agency actively recruits prospective employees with proficiency in Eurasian, Middle Eastern, Slavic, and Asian languages. The CIA's language school recruits teachers in Arabic, Chinese, Croatian, Farsi, French, German, Indonesian, Greek, Japanese, Korean, Russian, Serbian, Thai, and Vietnamese.[44]

Foreign Broadcast Information Service

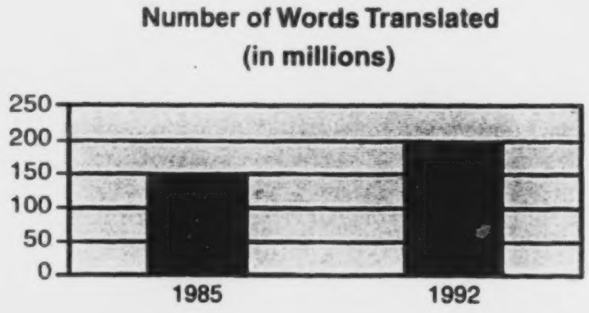
The Foreign Broadcast Information Service (FBIS), monitors foreign mass media for intelligence information. In 1985, FBIS and the Joint Publications Research Service, a subsidiary agency, translated some 150 million words from 3,500 open sources in more than 50 languages. By 1992, the translation volume had grown to 200 million words (roughly 200,000 pages). FBIS reported demand for Arabic, Balkan languages, French, Greek, Eastern European languages, Persian, German, Korean, Russian, Spanish, Japanese, and Chinese.[45]

Office of Naval Intelligence

The Office of Naval Intelligence (ONI) Foreign Language Services Team handles translation for ONI purposes, as well as interpretation at conferences and verification of multilateral maritime agreements. At present, the ONI has language requirements in Russian, German, French, Spanish, Swedish, Polish, Arabic, Ukrainian, Dutch, Czech, Chinese, and Japanese.[46]

Secret Service

The Secret Service has translating and interpreting requirements in 14 languages, including German, French, Italian, Arabic, Hausa, Russian, and Spanish. In addition, several foreign posts carry language requirements. Total levels of language need are not available to the public.[47]



Source: Foreign Broadcast Information Service

Figure 4.2. FBIS Translation Volume

Congressional Research Service

The Congressional Research Service (CRS), a division of the Library of Congress, was created in 1914 as a think tank and policy analysis center for the U.S. Congress. The Language Services Section serves as the primary source of translation services for the Congress and has language requirements in French, German, Latin, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish.

Federal Research Division

The Federal Research Division (FRD), another branch of the Library of Congress, performs research for the executive and judicial branches of the U.S. government. FRD annually performs research for more than 30 agencies with requirements in Albanian, Arabic, Bulgarian, Chinese, Croatian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, Estonian, Farsi, Finnish, French, Georgian, German, Greek, Hebrew, Hungarian, Icelandic, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Spanish, Swedish, Turkish, and Ukrainian. Current research projects include a database of information on POWs and MIAs for the Defense POW/Missing Personnel Office, Spanish language surveys for the Bureau of the Census, and multilingual reference dictionaries in selected knowledge domains for the Department of Commerce and the intelligence community.

National Aeronautics and Space Administration

The National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) has recently decided to add multilingual support to the international space station, where the previous policy had been English only. Now, the primary working language will be English, but a combination of machine translation, telephonic interpretation, and human resources will be used to provide language services for the astronauts operating the space station, who will come from more than a dozen nations. The difficulties of NASA astronauts on the *Mir* Space Station have been well documented in the mass media, with several astronauts stating that language was indeed a barrier on the Russian space station, despite NASA's heavy investment in Russian language training for astronauts and other personnel.[48]

Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms

In its dual missions of regulating the alcoholic beverages, tobacco, and firearms industries and investigating violations of federal and state laws in these areas, the BATF requires a total of 27 separate languages: Swahili, Ukrainian, American Sign Language, Serbian, Farsi, Urdu, Hindi, Arabic, Cambodian, Norwegian, Tagalog, Danish, Hungarian, Hmong, German, French, Mandarin, Cantonese, Vietnamese, Japanese, Hebrew, Russian, Croatian, Korean, Portuguese, Greek, and Spanish. In addition to domestic investigation responsibilities, the BATF maintains liaisons with foreign governments, trains personnel from foreign agencies, and assists in investigations abroad.[49]

Economic

Data from Language Testing International

Data provided by Language Testing International, Inc. (LTI) provide direct evidence of demand in the private sector by language and domain. LTI provided us with summary results of some 20,000 OPIs it administered from 1992 to 1997. The cost of an OPI is more than $100. The data constitute concrete evidence of language demand by firms willing to spend substantial sums to certify employee proficiency or to screen potential employees.

The data show that the telecommunications industry typically requires ACTFL Advanced Proficiency (FILR 2). The financial services industry typically requires ACTFL Advanced-Plus (FILR 2+) or Superior (FILR 3) speaking proficiency—levels rarely attained in any language by graduates of U.S. postsecondary institutions. After Spanish (and disregarding English), the languages most in demand are Mandarin, French, and Japanese.[50] All told, 25 percent of the OPIs administered by LTI are in the LCTLs, and nearly 10 percent in the *least* commonly taught languages.

Classified Advertisements

A second indicator of demand can be found in job advertisements. Garcia and Otheguy (1994) reported that jobs requiring competency in a language other than English, advertised in the *New York Times* from 1970 to 1988, were for the most part low-paying clerical positions.[51] The National Foreign Language Center undertook a survey of want ads placed in the *New York Times* and the *Washington Post* in the first week of August 1998. We found that the majority of jobs thus advertised are now in managerial and professional positions, with a substantial increase in sales positions, due primarily to an increase in sales and telemarketing, presumably for the domestic

Table 4.4. Industry Demand for Oral Proficiency Interviews

Sector	Percentage of All OPIs Administered by LTI, 1992–1997
Communications	40
Financial Services	25
Public Utilities	20
Travel	10
Other	5

Source: Language Testing International, Inc.

Table 4.5. OPI Demand by Language, All Sectors

Language	Number of OPIs[a]	Language Type
Spanish	12,800	CTL
Chinese	1,500	LCTL
English	1,300	CTL
French	900	CTL
Japanese	500	LCTL
German	400	CTL
Russian	400	LCTL
Korean	400	LCTL
Hindi	400	LCTL
Vietnamese	400	LCTL
Tagalog	300	LCTL
Portuguese	200	LCTL
Arabic	200	LCTL
Other	300	NA
Totals	**20,000**	

Total LCTL: 4,600
Total Least CTL: 2,200
Note:
[a] Number of OPIs is rounded to nearest hundred.
Source: Language Testing International, Inc.

market. The increase in professional positions is due to an increase in the number of engineers, programmers, and consultants required for international businesses.

With regard to the salary offered to individuals with language proficiency, we found a substantial increase (even adjusting for inflation, and with the caveat that Garcia and Otheguy survey 18 years of advertisements and do not indicate whether they did or did not adjust for inflation) in the mean salary offered for managerial and professional positions. In 1988, the mean salary offered was $37,673; in 1998, the mean was $43,830. Finally, Garcia and Otheguy listed eleven languages, of which three—Spanish, French, and German—accounted for 86 percent of the sample. In our sample, we found 28 languages. Spanish, French, and German accounted for 67 percent of the sample. The demand for LCTLs more than doubled (14 percent to 33 percent); demand for the least commonly taught languages increased more than six-fold (2 percent to 13 percent). The increase came at the expense of German, French,

Table 4.6. Percentage of Various Positions Requiring Foreign Language

Category	Number of positions, 1970–1988	Percentage of positions, 1970–1988 (%)	Number of positions, 1998	Percentage of positions, 1998 (%)	Change[a] (%)
Clerical	531	84	181	27	- 67 %
Services	11	2	180	27	1,250
Managerial	23	3	84	13	333
Professional	68	11	191	29	164
Trades	0	0	13	2	NA

Note:

[a] Garcia and Otheguy surveyed advertisements over 18 years, selecting a single weekend from each year; that fact obscures the volume of advertisements on a per annum basis.

Source: Garcia, O. and R. Otheguy, 1994. "The Value of Speaking a LOTE in U.S. Business." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 532 (March 1994): 99–122.

and, to a lesser extent, Italian. French dropped from 26 percent to 14 percent of the sample; German dropped from 28 percent to 8 percent.

With both sets of data presented here, it is impossible to determine how much of the demand is for purely domestic purposes.

Social

Executive Office of Immigration Review

The Executive Office of Immigration Review (EOIR), a branch of the Department of Justice, operates the nation's immigration courts. In 1997, some 68,000 requests for interpretation were processed, with the majority (68 percent) in Spanish. Some 140 languages make up the rest.[52]

Social Security Administration

In congressional testimony in March 1998 the commissioner of the Social Security Administration (SSA), Kenneth S. Apfel, outlined the foreign language requirements of his agency.[53] Some of those requirements resulted from the mandate of the SSA to interact with U.S. resident speakers of languages other than English. Other staffing, translation, and interpretation requirements arose in connection with serving beneficiaries living abroad. The SSA maintains benefits offices in six foreign nations. The primary languages required by the SSA are French, German, Italian, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish.[54]

National Institutes of Health

NIH processes nearly 600 translation requests each year, primarily involving foreign research material and patient records requested by NIH researchers and doctors. More than 45 languages were included in 1997 activity.[55]

Library of Congress

Foreign language activity at the Library of Congress is extensive, given that more than half of the library's 115 million holdings are in some 450 languages other than English.[56] Requirements include translation capability for cataloguing, interpretation for library users who speak languages other than English, and general proficiency for library staff assigned to field offices throughout the world or who are sent from Washington to field locations for acquisition (some 300 personnel work in acquisitions).[57]

U.S. Postal Service

The International Postal Affairs Office of the U.S. Postal Service is responsible for relations with 189 foreign postal services, all of which are members of the Universal Postal Union. Recent years have seen a surge in Japanese, Chinese, and Central Asian language activity.[58]

Documented Deficits in the Supply of Language Expertise

Political/Military

Proficiency Outputs of the U.S. Academic Sector as Supplied by Study Abroad Pipeline Data

The minimum working proficiency for most jobs requiring language competence in the government is FILR level 2 (ACTFL Advanced), while other positions in private industry and in federal agencies require ACTFL Superior or FILR 3 and above.[59] Given these requirements, there are clear indicators of a deficit in the *quality* of the supply of language-proficient individuals emerging from the domestic academic system of the United States. NFLC analyses of participant databases from the American Council of Teachers of Russian (ACTR), the Center for Arabic Studies Abroad (CASA), and the National Security Education Program (NSEP) reveal that the median *speaking* proficiency of American undergraduate students entering study abroad programs is ACTFL Intermediate High (roughly equivalent to FILR 1+). The ACTR database contains preprogram OPI results for 1,212 participants in study abroad programs in Russia and the Former Soviet Union from 1986 to 1997. The CASA database contains preprogram speaking proficiency scores for 270 participants in Arabic language study abroad programs in Cairo from 1989 to 1998. The NSEP undergraduate data contain 231 OPI results in 30 languages from 1996 to 1998.

Given the fact that most students of language in our nation's schools and universities do not study abroad at all, it is reasonable to assume that the minority of language learners who do choose to study abroad at the graduate level are highly motivated. This assumption, together with the fact that the CASA and NSEP participants must pass a highly competitive selection process, leads us to conclude that the preprogram speaking proficiency levels of the individuals considered here represent the best outputs of the university system in the United States. The fact that the academic system appears to fall short in producing speakers minimally qualified to hold jobs that require fluent use of a foreign language explains why the federal language programs exist and why the language training business in the private sector is so successful.

This is not to say that language programs in U.S. higher education are of poor quality, but they are not able to make up for the fact that most entering students have little previous language training. The United States, almost alone among developed nations, assigns the primary responsibility for teaching language to the tertiary level of education. Unfortunately, students who are preparing for professional careers cannot allocate the time required to become fluent in another language.[60] Practically every other developed country requires language study much earlier, often beginning in elementary school.

Table 4.7. NSEP Undergraduate Languages, Preprogram Proficiency Count

Language	Number of Participants	Number Tested (Number Waived)[a]	Median Proficiency of Those Tested
Arabic	20	11 (9)	Novice Low
Chinese (Mandarin)	32	27 (5)	Intermediate Low
Japanese	29	19 (10)	Novice High
Portuguese	8	8	Novice Low
Russian	42	36 (6)	Intermediate Low
Spanish	39	31 (8)	Intermediate Mid

Note:

[a] Preprogram proficiency tests may be waived at the discretion of program managers.

Source: National Security Education Program

Foreign Broadcast Information Service

FBIS has indicated difficulty in finding qualified candidates with Arabic, Farsi, and Serbo-Croatian.[61] It has recently advertised for recruits in several languages, including Chinese, Hebrew, Indonesian, Japanese, Persian, Portuguese, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, and Spanish. FBIS indicates in its advertising that area knowledge is a required skill and that applicants will be tested on their area knowledge as well as their language skills.[62]

Serbo-Croatian Contingency Training

With the signing of the Dayton Peace Accords in 1995, the United States military was faced with the task of providing a force of more than 20,000 for peacekeeping in Bosnia. Those forces required more than 200 personnel proficient in Serbian-Croatian. Some 38 languages were used by the peacekeeping coalition, imposing an unprecedented strain on the supply of military linguists. At the time, less than 25 percent of this demand could be met, leading to enormous expenditures for the training of military personnel in Serbian-Croatian.[63] Ongoing commitments in the Balkans require the use of some 600 contract personnel for interpreting.[64]

This case illustrates one of the major language issues confronted by federal agencies, the so-called "surge" problem. Without the capacity to "warehouse" expertise in hundreds of languages against the contingency that they might be needed, these agencies must react to sudden demand by ad hoc programs of recruitment or training. This strategy inevitably results in shortfalls of supply, particularly when recruitment fails and the extended time demands of language training take control.[65]

Troops Abroad

In the fall of 1998, U.S. military personnel were stationed in more than 100 foreign countries, on all seven continents. These soldiers, sailors, airmen, and Marines perform numerous missions, including traditional deterrence, as well as humanitarian and diplomatic functions that often require foreign language skills. General Wesley Clark, supreme commander of NATO, stated in testimony before Congress that NATO's commitments in the Balkans generated significant language requirements.

> *We never have enough language capabilities, and now the case in point is Albanian. So if you look through the United States Armed Forces and you say "I want a native speaking Albanian who's a staff sergeant and who can speak with a full degree of fluency," you have to look really hard to find enough people who can do that. There's not a whole lot of them. That's always going to be a challenge when we operate.*[66]

Foreign Service

The State Department reports that only 60 percent of its Foreign Service billets requiring language are presently filled, with waivers applied to another 35 percent.[67]

This is a clear indication of inability to meet *current* demand, as defined by the State Department's own language requirements.

Economic

Trade with Japan

The U.S. Chamber of Commerce in Japan reports that less than one-third of bilateral U.S.-Japan trade agreements made since 1980 have been implemented, in part due to a shortage of personnel qualified in Japanese.[68]

U.S. Patent and Trademark Office

The U.S. Patent and Trademark Office (PTO) reports difficulties in meeting its language requirements in Korean, a source of concern within the PTO.[69]

Microsoft Corporation and Software Globalization

In testimony before the Senate Judiciary Committee in February 1998, Michael Murray, vice president for human resources and administration at Microsoft, stated that his company generated 62 percent of its revenues in 1997 through export of its products to more than 100 countries.

> *The ability to produce high-quality products that will sell in foreign markets . . . requires that U.S. companies have access to highly-skilled workers who understand the consumers, culture, and language of those markets.*
>
> *U.S. workers, even if they are familiar with foreign languages, generally lack the complete understanding of the cultural modifications [for software localization] required to meet the demands of foreign customers.*

Murray states that despite the investment of more than half a billion dollars in recruitment and training Microsoft failed to fill more than 2,500 technical positions in 1997.[70]

Social

Peace Corps

A 1994 General Accounting Office (GAO) report singled out the Peace Corps's reliance on consultants and staff "who lacked adequate cultural or language knowledge" to develop new programs in the former East Bloc. While the Peace Corps has taken significant steps to address this issue, the GAO sites the lack of language and cultural knowledge as the key factor in the failure of new programs to have an impact. For example, the Peace Corps assigned a staff person on temporary duty from the Philippines to design its environment program in Poland, even though the person did not know the language and had no previous experience in the region. As a result, the program's design did not address Poland's environmental goals or have much impact.[71]

Food and Drug Administration

Several units of the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) monitor compliance with U.S. food and drug regulations by companies exporting to the United States. This, in turn, requires foreign language expertise or services. Evidence exists that the inability to meet foreign language needs of certain FDA units has hampered mission performance. For example, a 1994 report stated that the FDA's strategic managers for pesticides and chemical contaminants were unable to use much of the information on pesticide use that the agency had collected from foreign countries because it was in a foreign language.[72]

Asserted Need

Political/Military

Coast Guard

Beginning in the second quarter of 1999, the U.S. Coast Guard (USCG) initiated a foreign language needs assessment. This survey covers the languages required by the force, the missions and activities during which language is required, how language needs have been met, and the impact of language on mission outcomes. The survey is an implicit assertion of foreign language needs in the USCG.[73]

U.S. Special Operations Command

In testimony on military readiness before the House Armed Services Committee in March 1999, General Peter J. Shoomaker, commander in chief of the U.S. Special Operations Command (SOCOM), pointed out the necessity of language proficiency as a skill for the Special Forces.

> *[S]pecial operators will have the foreign language skills and cultural awareness appropriate to that regional theater . . . . A key aspect of the global scout concept that relates to readiness is that when a flare-up occurs in places such as Liberia or Rwanda, members of an Army Special Forces A-Team or Navy SEALs may already be operating in the area. Accordingly, we have mature people on the ground who speak the language, can assess the situation, and take action.*[74]

In essence, General Shoomaker points out the criticality of language and cultural skills to the missions of SOCOM. We take this as an implicit assertion of the need for language in SOCOM.

Reports by the Chair of the CIA's Foreign Language Committee

Growing and changing need for foreign language competence, especially in "low density" (less commonly taught) languages has been asserted by policy makers in the intelligence community, including the past two chairs of the CIA's Foreign Language Committee.[75] In particular, the qualitative shift in language needs detailed earlier in this chapter has created requirements within the intelligence community for far more languages at a lower unit cost (from the perspective of training) than during the Cold War.

> *Throughout much of the intelligence community, linguists and language instructors continue to leave the language field in order to advance their careers. The result is that the community is deprived of critical senior-level language expertise, particularly if the linguist or instructor is proficient in a less-common or low density language . . . . Despite many linguists' desire to maintain and enhance their language skills, courses are often outdated or completely unavailable, particularly for the less commonly taught languages.*[76]

Every agency represented in the report (CIA, NSA, FBI, Army, Air Force, DIA, State Department, DLI, and the Marine Corps) cites particular low-density/LCTL language needs, such as Urdu and Punjabi (needed by the FBI to deal with Sikh terrorist threats); Iraqi Arabic (needed during the Gulf War); and so forth.

NSEP Language Needs Survey

NSEP is charged by law with annually surveying agencies with national security responsibilities to determine the languages and subject fields required at each agency. NSEP performs the *only* regular assessment of federal language needs. Its survey reveals that agencies with national security responsibilities identify LCTLs as critical, including languages of the Former Soviet Union, the Middle East, East Asia, South Asia, and Southeast Asia (NSEP also identified Spanish as critical.)[77] To the degree that these assertions are unsupported by specific language-requirement data from each agency, they remain assertions of need.

FILR-NFLC Language Needs Task Force

As noted in the introduction to the section on "documented demand," the FILR-NFLC task force on U.S. government language needs has asserted that demand for language in the U.S. government is rapidly expanding in terms of the languages required, the tasks to be performed, and the agencies and offices encountering such requirements and tasks.

Inadequacies in CIA Intelligence Capabilities

The 1998 report of the House Select Committee on Intelligence stresses current inadequacies in the CIA's foreign language capabilities, citing "a largely inexperienced work force, lack of foreign language skills, and limited in-country familiarity."[78] The CIA has moved aggressively in the past two years to remedy these deficits. Jack Downing, former chief of the Directorate of Operations for the CIA, and current Director of Operations James L. Pavitt have emphasized the importance of language proficiency. Pavitt has stated that he would force division chiefs to disclose in the paperwork supporting assignments and promotions the language proficiency of individuals recommended for station chief and other senior positions.

Emphasizing languages, Downing said, was a "no-brainer," given how low the directorate's language capabilities had slipped. The directorate had so few speakers of important languages in the Balkans, Downing recalled, that he forced the Central Eurasia Division to send a cadre of young officers to study Serbo-Croatian and Albanian in June 1998. They had not quite finished their year of study when NATO's bombardment of Yugoslavia began in March. With Kosovo and Albania still critical areas of operation, the class is out of school—and in the field.[79]

1998 Review of CIA Operations ("Jeremiah Report")

The 1998 review of Central Intelligence Agency operations, sparked by the testing of nuclear devices on the Indian subcontinent, stresses current inadequacies in the CIA's ability to understand other cultures and to interpret intelligence data in context. In his testimony before the Senate Select Committee on Intelligence, Admiral Jeremiah, who chaired the review, stated that the agency must break out of American political and cultural patterns to grasp the ways in which the rest of the world thinks.[80]

Report of the Public Diplomacy Commission

In its 1998 report, the United States Advisory Commission on Public Diplomacy decries the inadequate preparation U.S. diplomats receive for public diplomacy, which includes interaction with foreign press, nongovernmental institutions, research on foreign public opinion, and public relations. The commission notes that "America's ambassadors must be able to communicate persuasively with the people of those [foreign] nations in person, on television, or through other media and ideally in their own language."[81]

The commission advocates making public diplomacy a core component of the curriculum for future diplomats and creating a reserve of skilled public diplomacy specialists with "language skills, media experience and an understanding of public diplomacy."[82] These recommendations assert the need for language-competent individuals; moreover, they highlight the degree to which language is but one integral requirement for successful intercultural communication—echoing the characteristic of *depth* of language needs.

U.S. Air Force Global Engagement Policy

The increasing emphasis on global engagement has led the U.S. Air Force to issue a strategic directive that 10 percent of its officer corps be proficient in a foreign language by 2005. An analysis of the relationship of global engagement requirements to Air Force language issues by Colonel Gunther Mueller of the Air Force Academy states:

> *Moreover, implied but not stated in [*Global Engagement: A Vision for the 21st Century Air Force*] is an unprecedented need for global skills to enhance the engagement process and to support the shift from cold war to Global Engagement strategies. Purely mechanical language skills that served—albeit poorly—strategic and tactical intelligence purposes, for example, will not serve the broader requirements of emerging engagement strategies.*[83]

The Air Force has clearly asserted its needs for foreign language and intercultural skills, at the level of strategic, long-term planning.

Economic

The Language Services Market

Industry watchers in the language services business—which includes translation, interpretation, language schools, machine translation software companies, language testing companies, language auditing consultants, and software localization firms—have provided estimates of the yearly gross receipts of the industry that range from $15 to $50 billion. Seth Schneider, publisher of *Multilingual Communications*, an industry trade magazine, offers a "conservative estimate" of $20 billion dollars yearly.[84] Sales of language services are an obvious indication of demand for language proficiency because they reflect the willingness of private and government sector entities to purchase language services. Once the estimate of the size of the market in language services can be documented and segmented (into political/military, economic, and social domains), it will become an important expression of actual, as opposed to asserted, demand for language.

Big Four Accounting Firms

In testimony before the House Judiciary Committee in 1999, Austin T. Fragomen, Jr., chairman of the American Council on International Personnel, noted the reliance of multinational accounting firms on personnel with foreign language skills:

> *[M]ultinational accounting firms seek out those candidates whose foreign language skills complement a baccalaureate degree. A Japanese-speaking baccalaureate degree holder is critical to the competitiveness of any of our Big Six [now Four] Accounting firms with a major audit practice of U.S.-based subsidiaries of Japanese corporations.*[85]

Intercultural Skills among Engineers

A 1997 report in *The Journal of Air Transportation World Wide* surveyed American and Japanese aerospace engineers and scientists on their ability to use Japanese and American research; their language abilities in English, Japanese, and other languages; and their language behaviors. The authors found that Japanese engineers read and speak more languages better, with all 94 Japanese respondents having English versus 3 percent of the 340 American respondents having Japanese. Seventy-one percent of Japanese engineers read German, compared to 21 percent of the American engineers; and 18 percent of Japanese engineers read Russian, compared to 6 percent of the Americans. The Japanese firms have a material advantage in their access to and understanding of American research and new technologies, compared to the access Americans have to Japanese research and technology. Japanese firms appear to be better able than their American counterparts to access cutting-edge research from other nations.[86]

Internet Use

Statistics from August 1999 on global Internet users by language indicate that some 43 percent of worldwide Internet users access the Web in languages other than English, and that this percentage has been steadily growing.[87] Data from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development show that, in 1999, 78 percent of all Web pages were in English (in 1997, more than 90 percent were in English) and 96 percent of all secure commercial servers—those used for commercial transactions—were English-language.[88] While the volume of Internet traffic and Web pages in languages other than English has grown and continues to do so, it is unclear at this point if electronic commerce will grow to match. The economic impact of the Web in marketing and selling to speakers of language other than English, both at home and abroad, is as yet unclear.

Harris/NFLC Poll

In 1998, the Harris Poll and the NFLC conducted a survey of American adults with the goal of eliciting information on how Americans view foreign language and how often they encounter foreign language speakers. The Harris poll found that 80 percent of Americans believe that it is important for business people to know another language, and that 89 percent of Americans interact with speakers of a language other than English. However, fully 30 percent of the respondents believe that more than 70 percent of the Earth's population speaks English, and less than 10 percent correctly estimated the percentage of the world's population that speaks English.[89]

We take these polls as evidence that the average American values foreign language skills and believes that such skills matter to international competitiveness. However, the polls reveal only attitudes; the practices of American students and companies suggests that behavior has not yet matched attitudes. That is, the portion of American college students taking language continues to decline (Chapter 3), and American companies still tend to approach language as a "management" problem—a fungible skill to be purchased or leased as needs arise—rather than an issue of strategic, long-term planning.

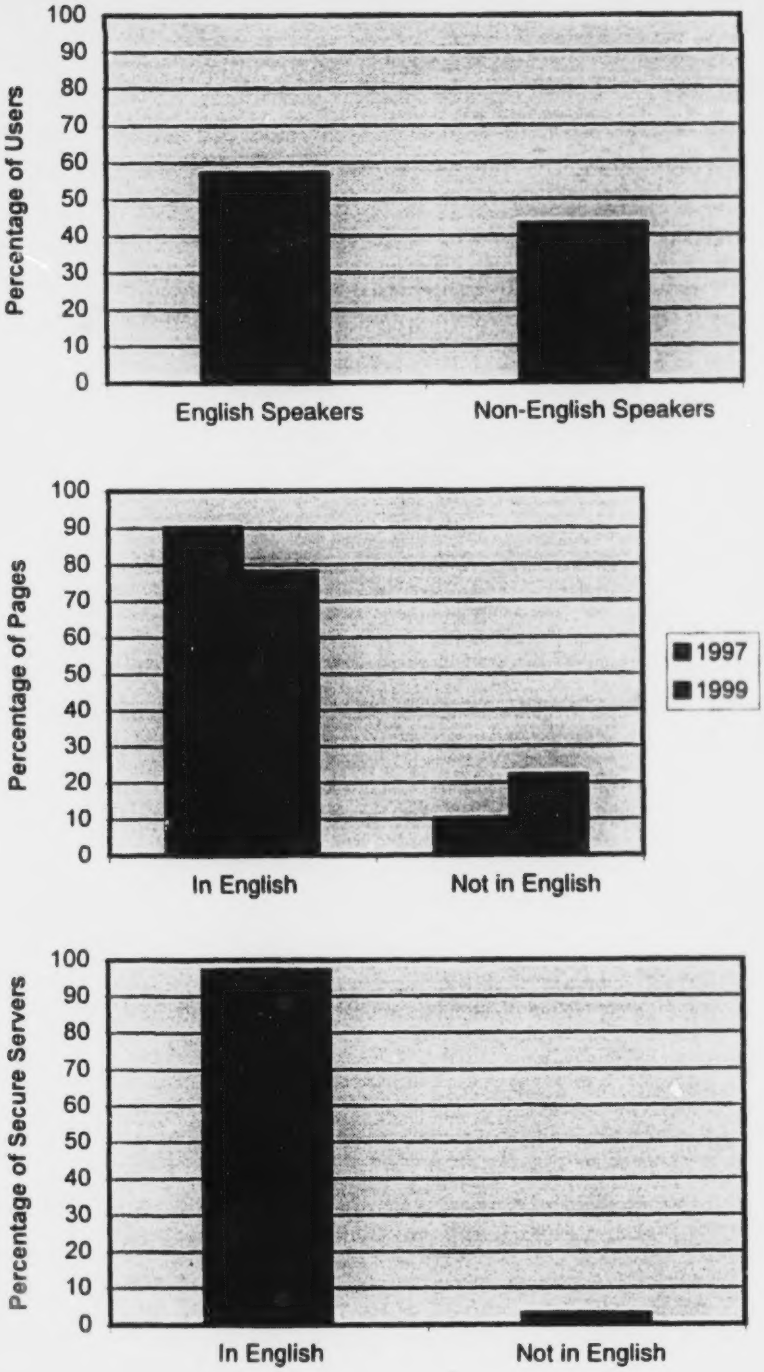


Figure 4.3. Internet Usage in English and in All Other Languages

Research on Corporate Hiring Priorities

The need for professionals who understand and are able to adjust to cultural difference has been documented in two recent studies of businesses in the United States. Both studies conclude that American businesses prefer new employees with experience in other cultures to those with only foreign language competence, a conclusion that justifies the inference that language programming that does not focus on cross-cultural communication knowledge and skills leaves students without a valuable and marketable asset. Moxon and collaborators at the University of Washington found that companies place a premium on relevant, long-term experience abroad, which, in most countries of the world, entails foreign language competence. Rand Corporation researchers Bikson and Law found that "cross-cultural competence—

the new human resource requirement for corporations with a global business strategy—was in short supply" and that "the supply of cross-culturally competent U.S. job candidates is scarce."[90]

The Globalization of the Professions Survey

In February 1999, the Center for Quality Assurance in International Education, the Global Alliance for Transitional Education, and NFLC surveyed North American accrediting, certifying, and licensing bodies to ascertain the level of international activity among professions such as engineering, nursing, law, and medicine. Respondents included bodies such as the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, the Accrediting Board for Engineering Training, the American Veterinary Medicine Association, the American Psychological Association, and the American Institute of Architects. The full survey will be published in the spring of 2000. The survey instrument appears in Appendix 3.7.

Respondents were selected based on national lists of professional membership organizations, national professional certifying organizations, and national licensing boards. Several questions regarding foreign language skills and cross-cultural knowledge were included in the survey. Of 90 respondents, 56 (62 percent) stated that language and cross-cultural skills were necessary to practice abroad. Many respondents added that language was the most important skill for practicing across borders. More than half of the respondents (53 percent) noted that members of their profession were generally unprepared to practice abroad. Moreover, several respondents indicated that lack of foreign language skills was an impediment to successful market penetration abroad. Mirroring this, English language markets were held to be more profitable, although no certifying or accrediting body as yet requires language skills.

The implications of these results are that deficiency in language and cross-cultural skills exist in certain professions, and that these deficiencies directly affect economic results for American professionals and professions. However, we take these as qualitative assertions, until and unless a larger, quantitative study of the costs and benefits of language in the economy can be performed.

Social

One need only read the daily newspapers to find assertions on the part of policy makers of the shortfall of linguistic competence in a range of U.S. government agencies. For example, senior officials of the FBI and the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) have publicly identified a need for linguistically qualified personnel to infiltrate international organized crime groups, particularly the Russian mafia and West African organized crime.[91]

Language Needs Arising from Strategic Policy Decisions

The following cases are taken from national security policy documents. They touch on all three domains of need: political/military, economic, and social. We first present the overarching strategic policy assertions derived from the main planning documents, the president's *A National Security Strategy for a New Century* and the Department of State's *United States Strategic Plan for International Affairs*.

We then discuss several regions that have become foci of national security policy. For each of these regions, the domain of need is specified; however, in each region, it will be clear that all three domains are affected.

Strategic Plans for National Security and International Affairs

The White House's *National Security Strategy for a New Century*, mandated by the Goldwater-Nichols Department of Defense Reorganization Act of 1986, provides basic policy direction for strategic planning in national security. *United States Strategic Plan for International Affairs* is the GPRA-mandated strategic plan for international affairs.[92] The following table, drawn from the two reports, lists the national security issues associated with each country or area of the world, as well as the languages spoken in that area. Where numerous languages are spoken, we list the principal regional languages or indicate the approximate number of languages spoken. The table is an indication of potential language needs. Some of the areas listed may never give rise to needs for language proficiency, whereas others (notably southeastern Europe and Central Asia) have already had significant impact on national language needs. The table is daunting in its size, and the scope of themes, countries, and languages that arise as national security issues.

The Caspian Basin

In recognition of the expansion of U.S. interests in the Caspian region, President Clinton appointed a special ambassador to the Caspian Basin in the fall of 1998. Growing U.S. business and military involvement in the region may generate further requirements for proficiency in the local languages, particularly those of the resource-rich states of Azerbaijan, Armenia, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, and Turkmenistan. Requirements may include the official language of each state, as well as minority languages and the regional *lingua franca*, Russian.

Sub-Saharan Africa

In June 1998, President Clinton declared Africa, in particular Sub-Saharan Africa, a major strategic focus for the United States, encompassing diplomacy, social issues,

Table 4.8. National Security Issues by Region and Country

Region	Issue	Regional *Lingua Franca*[*]
Africa	Energy, security, promoting democracy, economic prosperity, education, crisis management, export opportunities, "open skies"	Arabic, Swahili, French, English
Asia	Export opportunities	—
Asia Pacific	Promoting democracy	—
Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation members	Trade	—
Balkans	Human rights, humanitarian aid, promoting democracy	—
Baltics	Cooperation, integration, peace	—
Caribbean	Drug interdiction	English
Caspian Basin	Energy, security, oil and gas	Russian
Caucasus	Security, weapons of mass destruction, nuclear nonproliferation, energy, oil and gas	Russian
Central Asia	Security, weapons of mass destruction, nuclear nonproliferation, economic prosperity	Russian, Turkish
Central and Eastern Europe	Military transformation, promoting democracy, security, environment, market reform, organized crime	German, Russian
East Asia	Security, regional state-centered threats	Mandarin, Cantonese
Europe	Trade, arms control (conventional forces treaty)	English, French, German
Former Soviet Union and New Independent States	Arms control, nuclear nonproliferation, weapons of mass destruction controled by organized crime, security containment, promoting democracy, market reform, environment, military transformation	Russian

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Table 4.8., continued

Region	**Issue**	**Regional *Lingua Franca*[a]**
Free Trade Area of the Americas	Trade	English, Spanish
G-8 (major powers)	Terrorism, organized crime	———
Horn of Africa	Humanitarian aid	Arabic
Latin America	Promoting democracy, exports, prosperity, NAFTA, FTAA, drug interdiction	Spanish, Portuguese
Middle East	Oil and gas, financial reform, energy, security, weapons of mass destruction, nuclear nonproliferation, economic prosperity, conventional arms control	Arabic
Nagorno-Kharabakh	Conflict	Armenian, Azerbaijani
NATO	Security	English, French
North Atlantic	Trade	———
North Africa	Economic prosperity	Arabic, French
Northeast Asia	Security, arms control, nuclear nonproliferation, weapons of mass destruction	Mandarin, Korean, Japanese, Russian
Northeastern Europe	Cooperation, integration, peace	———
Persian Gulf	Weapons of mass destruction, nuclear nonproliferation, security, democracy, containment of military deployments, energy	Farsi, Arabic
South Asia	Nuclear nonproliferation, security, weapons of mass destruction, energy	———
Southeast Asia	Security, prosperity, drug interdiction, financial stability	———
Southeastern Europe	Promoting democracy	———

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Table 4.8., continued

Region	**Issue**	**Regional *Lingua Franca*[a]**
Southwest Asia	Nuclear nonproliferation, security, weapons of mass destruction, energy, promoting democracy, regional state-centered threats, convention arms control	——
Subsaharan Africa	Promoting democracy, prosperity	——
Western hemisphere	Drugs, terrorism, peace	——
World Trade Organization	Trade	——

Country	**Issue**	**Language**
Abkhazia	Conflict	Abkhazian
Afghanistan	Drugs, terrorism, weapons of mass destruction, security, democracy	Eastern Farsi, Hazagari, Uzbeki
Angola	Landmine removal, democracy	Portuguese, Mbundu, Kongo, Chokwe
Argentina	Drugs, terrorism, peace	Spanish, Quechua, Central Aymara
Australia	Enhancing security, prosperity	English, Aboriginal languages
Belarus	"Open skies," arms control (ABM)	Belarussian, Russian, Ukrainian
Bosnia	Security containment, promoting democracy, financial reform, peacekeeping	Bosnian, Romani (Gypsi)
Brazil	Drugs, terrorism, peace	Portuguese, Guarani
Brunei	Enhancing security	Brunei, Bajau, Iban, English, Chinese, Tutong
Bulgaria	Promoting democracy	Bulgarian, Turkish

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Table 4.8., continued

Country	**Issue**	**Regional *Lingua Franca*[a]**
Burma	Enhancing security, promoting democracy, human rights	Burmese, Karen, Shan, Arakanese, others
Cambodia	Promoting democracy	Central Khmer, Mandarin Chinese, Vietnamese
Canada	Energy, security	English, French
Chile	Drugs, terrorism, peace	Spanish, others
China	Security, arms control, nuclear nonproliferation, weapons of mass destruction, promoting democracy, prosperity, human rights, environment	Chinese (Mandarin, Wu, Yue, Jin Yue, Xiang, Min Nan, Hakka, Gam, Min Pei), 55 official minority languages
Colombia	Drugs, terrorism, peace	Spanish, others
Congo	Economic prosperity, "open skies," education, democracy	French, Kiswahili, Lingala, Kituba, Ngala, Kikongo, Songe, others
Congo-Brazzaville	Democracy	French, Munukutuba, Lingala, Kikongo
Côte d'Ivoire	Military cooperation, prosperity, security	French, Jula, Baule, Bete, Dan, Senoufo, Anyin, others
Cuba	Promoting democracy, human rights	Spanish
Cyprus	Security containment	Greek, Turkish
Czech Republic	Enhancing security	Czech, German, Carpathian Romani
Ecuador	Drugs, terrorism, peace, peacekeeping	Spanish, Quechua
Eritrea	Landmine removal	Tigrinya, Tigre, Afar, Amharic, Italian, English, others
Ethiopia	Landmine removal, economic prosperity	Amharic, Oromo, Tigrinya, Somali, Sidamo
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	Promoting democracy	Macedonian, Serbo-Croatian, Albanian

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Table 4.8., continued

Country	Issue	Regional *Lingua Franca*[a]
Greece	Security containment	Greek
Haiti	Promoting democracy, financial reform, peacekeeping	Haitian Creole, French
Hungary	Enhancing security, law enforcement training	Hungarian
India	Nuclear nonproliferation, security, weapons of mass destruction, energy, drugs, arms control, environment	Hindi, Telugu, Marathi, Tamil, Bengali, Urdu, Kannada, Awadhi, Malayalam, Bhojpuri, many others
Indonesia	Enhancing security, promoting democracy, financial stability	Javanese, Sunda, Malay/ Indonesian, Madura, Bali, Sulwesi, Aceh, Banjar, Betawi, many others
Iran	Regional state-centered threats, security containment	Western Farsi, South Azerbaijani, Gilaki, Arabic (Gulf and Mesopotamian)
Iraq	Security containment, human rights, regional state-centered threats, weapons of mass destruction, nonproliferation, security, democracy, terrorism	Arabic, Kurdi, South Azerbaijani
Ireland	Cooperation, integration, peace	English, Gaelic
Israel	Peace	Hebrew, Arabic (Levantine and Judeo-Tunisian), Russian, Yiddish, Polish
Japan	Enhancing security, prosperity, energy	Japanese, some Okinawan
Kazakhstan	Nuclear nonproliferation, arms control (ABM)	Kazakh, Russian, German
Kenya	Economic prosperity, terrorism	English, Swahili, Gikuyu, Luo, Luyia, Kamba, Kalenjin, Gusii, Meru, many others
Laos	Enhancing security	Lao, Khmu, others

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Table 4.8., continued

Country	**Issue**	**Regional *Lingua Franca*[a]**
Lebanon	Peace	Arabic (Levantine and Modern Standard), Armenian
Liberia	Democracy, drugs, disease, crime	English, Pidgin, Liberian Kpelle, others
Libya	Terrorism	Arabic (Libyan)
Macedonia	Deployment, peacekeeping	Macedonian, Turkish, Albanian, Serbo-Croatian
Malawi	Military cooperation, prosperity, security	Chichewa, English, Lomwe, Tumbuka, others
Malaysia	Enhancing security	Malay, Chinese languages, Tamil, Banjar
Mali	Military cooperation, prosperity, security	Bambara, Maasina Fulfulde, Senuofo, Songai, others
Mexico	Promoting prosperity, NAFTA, FTAA, drug interdiction, energy, security	Spanish, Aztec (Nauatl), Yucateco
Mozambique	Landmine removal	Portuguese, Tsonga, Lomwe, Sena, Shona, Tswa, Chwabo, many others
Namibia	Landmine removal	Afrikaans, English, Oshivambo, Herero, Nama
Nigeria	Human rights, economic prosperity, "open skies," education, democracy	English, Hausa, Yoruba, Ibo, Fulfulde, many others
North Korea	Human rights, weapons of mass destruction, nuclear nonproliferation, missiles, enhancing security, regional state-centered threats	Korean
Northern Ireland	Cooperation, integration, peace	English, Gaelic
Pakistan	Nuclear nonproliferation, security, arms control, weapons of mass destruction, energy, drugs	Western Punjabi, Sindhi, Saraiki, Urdu, Northern Pashto, Kashmiri, Baluchi (various), Hindko, Brahui
Paraguay	Promoting democracy	Guarani, Spanish
Peru	Drugs, terrorism, peace, peacekeeping	Quechua, Spanish, Aymara

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Table 4.8., continued

Country	**Issue**	**Regional *Lingua Franca*[a]**
Philippines	Security, prosperity	English, Spanish, Cebuano, Tagalog, Ilocano, Hiligaynon, Bikol
Poland	Market reform, enhancing security	Polish, Ukrainian, German
Russia	Arms control (ABM), weapons of mass destruction, nuclear nonproliferation, enhancing security, promoting democracy, comprehensive assistance, financial reform, "open skies," protection of nuclear material, conversion of economy, market reform	Russian, Tatar, others
Rwanda	Human rights, landmine removal, economic prosperity, "open skies," education	Rwandan (Kinyarwanda), French, English
Senegal	Military cooperation, prosperity, security	French, Pulaar, Wolof, Falacunda, Serere, Toucouleur, Mandinka
Serbia	Promoting democracy	Serbo-Croatian, Albanian, others
Sierra Leone	Democracy, drugs, disease, crime	Krio, Mende, Themne, others
Singapore	Enhancing security	Chinese (Min Nan, Yue, Mandarin, others), Malay, English
Slovenia	Promoting democracy	Slovenian
Somalia	Peacekeeping	Somali, Maay, Arabic, English, Italian
South Africa	Promoting democracy, nuclear nonproliferation, weapons of mass destruction, transition to democracy	Zulu, Xhosa, Afrikaans, Sotho, English, Tswana, Tsonga, Hindi
South Korea	Nuclear nonproliferation, weapons of mass destruction, missiles, promoting prosperity, enhancing security	Korean
Sudan	Terrorism	Arabic (Sudanese), Hausa, Beja, Nuer, many others

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Table 4.8., continued

Country	**Issue**	**Regional *Lingua Franca*[a]**
Syria	Peace	Arabic (Levantine, Najdi, Syro-Mesopotamian, Modern Standard), Northern Kurdish, Armenian
Taiwan	Security, arms control, nuclear nonproliferation, weapons of mass destruction, environment	Chinese (Min Nan, Mandarin, Hakka), others
Tanzania	Terrorism	Swahili, Sukuma, Tunbuka, English, Haya, Gogo, Chaga, Ha, Hehe
Thailand	Promoting prosperity, enhancing security, financial stability	Central Thai, Thai (Northeastern, Northern, Southern, Dam), Khmer, Pattani Malay
Turkey	Oil and gas, security containment	Turkish, Northern Kurdish, Dimli, Arabic (Syro-Mesopotamian)
Uganda	Economic prosperity, military cooperation, security	Chiga, Ganda, Nyankole, Teso, Nyoro, English, many others
Ukraine	Promoting democracy, market reform, arms control (ABM), weapons of mass destruction, nuclear nonproliferation, security, "open skies"	Ukrainian, Russian, Polish
United Kingdom	Cooperation, integration, peace	English, Welsh, Gaelic
Venezuela	Energy, security	Spanish
Vietnam	Promoting democracy, enhancing security	Vietnamese, French, some others
Zambia	Military cooperation, prosperity, security	Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga, Swahili, English, Afrikaans, many others

Notes:

[a] Not all regions have a *lingua franca*; where at least one language is recognized as a *lingua franca*, we have listed it. Most regions comprise numerous languages; in some regions, hundreds of languages are spoken.

Source: *A National Security Strategy for a New Century*. 1998. Washington, DC: The White House; *United States Strategic Plan for International Affairs*. 1999. Washington, DC: Office of Resources, Plans, and Policy, Department of State.

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and the development of American business interests in Africa. The Senate passed legislation to subsidize American investments in the region. As of February 2000, that legislation was pending in the House. Meanwhile, Africa has drawn corporate interest and American investment.[93] Social issues, including migration and public health, remain prominent in the media. DOD recently announced that it had established an African Center for Strategic Studies in Dakar, Senegal. The center is intended to promote cooperation on security issues among African Nations and the United States.[94] The Clinton administration's strategic decision to focus on the region may well generate additional language requirements.

South Asia

The detonation of nuclear devices by both India and Pakistan and the ongoing dialogue with each nation on nonproliferation have helped to refocus U.S. attention on South Asia. The South Asian languages are among the most woefully underrepresented in the United States. Hindi draws by far the largest enrollments in higher education (694 students in 1995).

Summary and Recommendations

Globalization, democratization, and sole superpower status have imposed on the United States a range and scale of language needs that are unprecedented in the country's history. Reports from federal agencies and economic analysts have uncovered the need for proficiency in hundreds of local languages to be used in the accomplishment of thousands of discrete communication tasks.[95]

In this chapter we have presented a preliminary specification of the needs for language proficiency that have resulted from the basic changes we have described. Although much work remains to be done before it will be possible to generate detailed lists of specific language needs in each sector of activity, the data assembled here do reflect a sea change in the language needs of the country.

The new needs for language must be weighed against the nation's ability to meet them in the short and long terms. The nation's capacity in the so-called LCTLs is shockingly thin, particularly outside of Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Russian. This lack of capacity is compounded by the fact that two of the three primary sources of supply—students in schools, colleges, and universities and members of the heritage communities across the country—are not entering the language-training system in sufficient numbers. American students who are native English speakers remain averse to foreign language study, and especially to the study of non-European languages. Members of heritage communities have so far shown themselves unwilling to become America's language servants, possibly because of the prospect of relatively low earnings. Given the needs and demands listed above and the dearth of supply in the LCTLs, it can be stated with confidence that the nation has particularly severe needs in these languages.

We offer four major research recommendations specific to the description and characterization of national language needs.

- First, need, demand, supply, and capacity—the four components of the strategic market forces model—all have to be better specified. To that end, we propose in Chapter 5 the establishment of a new National Commission on Language in the United States to do just that
- Second, basic research is required to establish the costs and benefits of language competency in the government and private sectors. Much of the research to date has been fairly clear on the costs of acquiring language competency, but data on the benefits of language competency are scarce and occur mostly in the form of assertions of the competitive advantage accruing to businesses that make extensive use of particular language services[96]
- Third, research is required to document the microeconomic factors for influencing individual language choice. Extensive research in Quebec, Israel, and Europe documents the economic factors—including expected return, acquisition cost, and value in prestige and identity—that underpin individual language choice.[97] A clear understanding of *why* people choose to learn—or use—a language will be essential to any program intended to generate individual demand for language. In the United States at least, there is apparently little truth to the saying, "Build it, and they will come," at least as far as language is concerned. Foreign language enrollments have been stagnant, regardless of federal investment in language programming. Thus, although federal investment may preserve programs, it has little apparent influence in increasing enrollments. Increasing enrollments requires a better understanding of why people learn language
- Fourth, the fit between the capacity presently available in the United States and the capacity required by documented needs requires further research

Notes

1. Eagleburger, L. 1998. "New Directions for the Next Century." Address delivered at the Title VI 40th Anniversary Conference: International Education in American Colleges and Universities: Prospect and Retrospect. Washington, DC, April 16.
2. The Harris poll found that, on average, Americans think that 52 percent of the world's population speaks English. "Younger adults and people without a college education, tend to believe the proportion of the world's population who speak English is even higher, well over 50 percent. But even very well educated and older people greatly overestimate the world's proportion of English speakers. Large minorities of both college graduates (43 percent) and those with postgraduate degrees (42 percent) believe

that more than two out of five people worldwide speak English." Taylor, H. 1998. "Americans Believe that Over Half the World's Population Speaks English." Harris Poll 61, November 4. New York: Louis Harris and Associates. A conservative estimate of the percentage of English speakers in the world is 20 percent, based on Grimes, B. (ed.). 1996. *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*. 13th ed. Dallas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.

3. Among the authors to have sounded such alarms are the following: Simon, P. 1980. *The Tongue-Tied American: Confronting the Foreign Language Crisis*. New York: Continuum; National Commission on Excellence in Education. 1983. *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform: A Report to the Nation and the Secretary of Education, United States Department of Education*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office; President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. 1979. *Strength Through Wisdom: A Critique of U.S. Capability*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
4. The Commission on Educational Excellence (cited in the preceding note) found that foreign languages were not required for high school graduation in any state (in 1983) and were required for admission at only 20 percent of postsecondary institutions. Such requirements fall under the rubric of *incentives* for individuals to take language; that is, market interventions to generate individual demand. However useful and important they may be for influencing the language marketplace, such interventions are not part of Title VI/F-H and are therefore excluded from this report. For more on the utility and efficacy of "demand-side" interventions and consumer incentives in the language market, Ridler, N. and S. Pons-Ridler. 1984. "Language Economics: A Case Study of French," *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* 5, 1: 57–63.
5. Business needs are discussed in Inman, M. 1979. "Foreign Languages and the U.S. Multinational Corporation." In *President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies*; Fixman, M. 1989. *The Foreign Language Needs of U.S.-Based Corporations*. NFLC Occasional Papers. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center; Moxon, R., E. O'Shea, M. Brown, and C. Escher. 1998. "Changing U.S. Business Needs for International Expertise." In J. Hawkins, C. Haro, M. Kazanjian, G. Merkx, and D. Wiley (eds.), *International Education in the New Global Era: Proceedings of a National Policy Conference on the Higher Education Act, Title VI/F-H, and Fulbright-Hays Programs*. Los Angeles: International Studies and Overseas Programs, University of California.; and Bikson, T. and S. Law. 1994. *Global Preparedness and Human Resources: College and Corporate Perspectives*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation. Needs in the intelligence community or the Department of Defense have been analyzed in General Accounting Office. 1994. *Department of Defense Training: Many Department of Defense Linguists Do Not Meet Minimum Proficiency Standards*. ID-94-191. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office; and General Accounting Office. 1978. *Study of Foreign Languages and Related Areas: Federal Support, Administration, and Need*. ID-78-46. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office. Two works by Theodore Crump, head of the translation division at the library of the National Institutes of Health, are also of interest. His *Translation and Interpretation in the U.S. Government* is forthcoming from the National Foreign Language Center in Washington, DC. *Translations in the Federal*

Government 1985 was published by the American Translators Association in Alexandria, VA. See also, Lay, S.P. 1995. Foreign Language and the Federal Government: Interagency Coordination and Policy. Unpublished MA thesis, University of Maryland.

6. We acknowledge Victor Frank of the NFLC for assistance in drafting this section.
7. For estimates of the oil reserves in Central Asia and the Caucuses, see World Bank. 1993. *Kazakhstan: The Transition to a Market Economy.* A World Bank Country Study. Washington, DC: World Bank; and Kaser, M. 1997. *The Economies of Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan.* London: Royal Institute of International Affairs.
8. Ottaway, D. and D. Morgan. 1997. "China Pursues Ambitious Role in Oil Market," *Washington Post*, December 26, A1; Risen, J. 1998. "Russians Are Back in Afghanistan, Aiding Rebels," *New York Times*, July 27, A1.
9. For Japan's interest in Central Asia and the Caspian Basin, see Shigeki, H. 1997. "Building a New Japan-Russia Relationship," *Japan Echo* (December): 22–25.
10. Smith, J. 1997. "U.S. Leads Peacekeeping Drill in Kazakhstan," *Washington Post*, September 15, A17.
11. Dan Davidson, Executive Director, American Councils for International Education. Personal communication, April 1, 1998.
12. Caspian Basin languages by number of total enrollments: Russian 23,305; Chinese 25,429; Armenian 207; Kazakh 5; Uzbek 4; Georgian 1; Iranian 154; Persian 390; Tajik 1; Turkic 219; Turkish 134. From: Modern Language Association. 1996. *Fall 1995 Registrations in Foreign Languages: Preliminary Findings.* New York: Modern Language Association.
13. See Priest, D. 1998. "Free of Oversight, U.S. Military Trains Foreign Troops," *Washington Post*, July 12, A1; Farah, D. 1998. "A Tutor to Every Army in Latin America," *Washington Post*, July 13, A1; Duke, L. 1998. "Africans Use Training in Unexpected Ways," *Washington Post*, July 14, A1.
14. Grimes, *Ethnologue: Languages of the World.*
15. For the military's experience with language requirements in Somalia, see Lipke, W. 1998. *RESTORE HOPE: Somali Language Operations.* Summary report of the General Officer Steering Committee. Monterey, CA. Defense Foreign Language Program.
16. This datum supplied in a confidential interview with DOD officials, November 7, 1998.
17. For instructional challenges in the LCTLs, see Jorden, E. and A. Walton. 1987. "Truly Foreign Languages: Instructional Challenges." In Lambert, R. (ed.), *Foreign Language Instruction: A National Agenda.* Philadelphia: American Academy of Social Sciences. For requirements in terms of instructional time to reach given proficiency levels in various languages, see Walker, G. 1989. "The Less Commonly Taught Languages in the Context of American Pedagogy." In H. Lepke (ed.), *Shaping the Future: Challenges and Opportunities*, 111–138. Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.
18. *DCI FLC Assessment of Language Needs.* 1993. Washington, DC: Director of Central Intelligence Foreign Language Committee.

19. For example, the president of a major Washington, DC–based contract language school that supplies instruction to U.S. government personnel told the authors that materials development and research on second language acquisition for the languages taught at the school were the province of the higher education system.
20. Friedman, T. 1999. *The Lexus and the Olive Tree*. New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux.
21. Frievalds, J. 1996. "Consolidation in the Language Business," *Multilingual Communications and Technology* 8, 2: 28.
22. See Sawyer, J. "The Language Market through 2005," *Multilingual Communications and Technology* 8, 4: 29–30.
23. Since 1985, the European Union has required that products in certain categories (such as toys, medical equipment, power equipment) meet specifications for the "CE Mark" in order to be sold in the European Union member states. Among the requirements is labeling in the language of the buyer. More recently, Iceland and Switzerland have joined the EU in requiring the CE mark.
24. The requirement that specific languages be used for reasons of safety, human rights, or integration of trade within a regional economic bloc (e.g., the Arab League, *La Francophonie*) has the effect of slowing the spread of English as a *lingua franca*, at least in certain regulated domains.
25. For the impact of these crises on foreign language education and international studies in the United States, see the relevant chapters in McCaughey, R. 1985. *International Studies and Academic Enterprise: A Chapter in the Enclosure of American Learning*. New York: Columbia University Press.
26. See Simon, *Tongue-Tied American*; Inman, "Foreign Languages and the U.S. Multinational Corporation"; and Berryman, S., P. Langer, J. Pincus, and R. Solomon. 1979. *Foreign Language and International Studies Specialists: The Marketplace and National Policy*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation. Neither Inman nor Berryman found much demand—asserted or real—for language competence in the business sector.
27. Friedman, *The Lexus and the Olive Tree*, 7–8.
28. Trim, J.L.M. 2000. "The Way Ahead: European Recommendations for Language Teaching Policy Development into the Next Century." In *Language Policy and Pedagogy: Essays in Honor of A. Ronald Walton*, R. Lambert and E. Shohamy (eds.). Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
29. Farah, D. 1997. "Russian Mob, Drug Cartel Joining Forces," *Washington Post*, September 29, 1997, A1.
30. Several recent studies have highlighted the centrality of language in debates and struggles over cultural policies. See, for example, Spolsky, B. and E. Shohamy. 2000. "Language Practice, Language Ideology, and Language Policy." In Lambert and E. Shohamy (eds.), *Language Policy and Pedagogy*; and Fishman, J.A., "The Status Agenda in Corpus Planning" in the same volume.
31. For a discussion of the impact of the shift to the export of services and towards a more service-based economy generally, on language requirements, see Brecht, R. and A. Walton. 1995. "The Future Shape of Language Learning in the New World of Global

Communications: Consequences for Higher Education and Beyond." In R. Donato and R. Terry (eds.), *Foreign Language Learning: The Journey of a Lifetime.* Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.

32. Personal communication with Seth Schneider, publisher of *Multilingual Communications*, an industry trade magazine, on February 9, 1999.

33. Brecht and Walton, "The Future Shape of Language Learning."

34. The economic analysis of language as a commodity was first proposed by Marshak, J. 1965. "Economics of Language," *Behavioral Science* 10: 135–140; Thorbrun, T. 1971. "Cost-Benefit Analysis in Language Planning." In B. Jernudd and J. Rubin (eds.), *Can Language Be Planned?* 253–262. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press; and Jernudd, B. 1971. "Notes in Economic Analysis for Some Language Problems." In Jernudd and Rubin (eds.), *Can Language Be Planned?* 263–276. Two main types of analysis have been conducted on the economics of language. Studies focusing on return on investment in language as a fixed asset examine census and survey data and correlate earnings to language use. Chiswick, B. and P. Miller. 1995. "The Endogeneity between Language and Earnings: International Analyses," *Journal of Labor Economics* 13: 246–288; and Savoie, G. 1995. "The Comparative Advantage of Bilingualism on the Job Market: Survey of Studies." In *Official Languages and the Economy.* Papers presented at a colloquium hosted by the Official Languages Support Branch, Department of Canadian Heritage, May 5, 1995. Ottawa: Department of Canadian Heritage, 63–86. Rational choice analyses focus on language as a *common* or *consumer* good. A subset of this second area of inquiry treats language as a form of human capital, enabling cost-savings in communications between different language groups. That is, language is analyzed as a common good enabling competitive advantages to one or another language group. Breton, A. 1978. "Nationalism and Language Policies," *Canadian Journal of Economics* 11: 656–668. The utility of designating and promoting one language over others may be economic. Witness the recent decision of Nigeria to promote French as a means of bettering its trade position with its officially Francophone neighbors. French, H. 1998. "Nigeria Hangs Out a Banner: Ici On Parle Français," *New York Times,* May 4. Developing a sense of national or regional identity provides another motivation for language choice. See Williams, C. 1997. "Territory, Identity, and Language." In M. Keating and J. Loughlin (eds.), *The Political Economy of Regionalism.* New York: Frank Cass, 112–138; and Schiffman, H. 1996. *Linguistic Culture and Language Policy.* London and New York: Routledge. Yet another goal may be to promote nationalist political policies or to consolidate power in one party or language bloc within a polity. See Fortin, P. 1978. "La dimension économique de la crise politique canadienne," *Canadian Public Policy* 4, 3: 309–324; Kreindler, I. 1997. "Multilingualism in the Successor States of the Soviet Union." *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 17: 91–112; Dingley, J. 1989. "Ukrainian and Belorussian—A Testing Ground." In M. Kirkwood (ed.), *Language Planning in the Soviet Union*, 174–188. London: Macmillan; Solanchyk, R. 1985. "Language Politics in the Ukraine." In I. Kreindler (ed.), *Sociolinguistic Perspectives on Soviet National Languages: Their Past, Present, and Future.* Berlin and New York: Mouton; Breton, "Nationalism and Language Policies"; Hough, J. 1996. "Sociology, the State, and Language Politics," *Post-Soviet Affairs*, 12, 2: 95–117; and Laitin, D. 1998. *Identity in*

Formation: The Russian-Speaking Populations in the Near Abroad. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press. The costs are typically in the capital required to promote the acquisition of the language in question or in the potential economic and cultural isolation of a nation or region from its stronger monolingual neighbors, as in the case of Quebec before the Official Languages Act of 1981. With regard to capital costs, see Selten, R. and J. Pool. 1991. "The Distribution of Foreign Language Skills as a Game Equilibrium." In R. Selten (ed.), *Game Equilibrium Models*, 64–87. Berlin: Springer Verlag. On the second point—economic or cultural isolation—see Fortin, "La dimension économique de la crise politique canadienne"; and Ridler and Pons-Ridler, "Language Economics: A Case Study of French." Language as a *consumer good*, subject to the purchasing decision of the individual, is the subject of a growing body of research. Breton and Mieszkowski first identified the potential for the analysis of language as a consumer good. Breton, A. and P. Mieszkowski. 1977. "The Economics of Bilingualism." In W. Oates (ed.), *The Political Economy of Fiscal Federalism*. Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath. Grin identifies utility functions and parameters for rational choice of language use, using Welsh as an example. Grin, F. 1990. "The Economic Approach to Minority Languages," *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* 11, 1-2: 153–173. Others extend this analysis to Quebec, commenting on the use of incentives to increase the prestige of French for anglophones. See Fortin, "La dimension économique de la crise politique canadienne"; Vaillancourt, F. 1995. "Economic Costs and Benefits of the Official Languages: Some Observations." In *Official Languages and the Economy*. Papers presented at a colloquium hosted by the Official Languages Support Branch, Department of Canadian Heritage, May 5, 1995. Ottawa: Department of Canadian Heritage, 101–115; and Vaillancourt, F. 1978. "La charte de la Langue Française au Québec: un essai d'analyse," *Canadian Public Policy*, 4, 3: 284–308.

35. Our categories are based in part on the categorization of needs in Berryman *et al., Foreign Language and International Studies Specialists.*

36. The task force includes the chair of the Director of Central Intelligence Foreign Language Committee; the language adviser to the director of the National Security Agency; the head of the Language Services Unit of the Federal Bureau of Investigation; the head of the translation division of the National Institutes of Health; the coordinator of the Federal Interagency Language Roundtable; the chief judge of the U.S. Immigration Courts; the language interpreting coordinator for the court system of the State of Maryland; the deputy director for language policy, Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for C^3I; and chief of language policy, Office of Policy and Planning, State Department.

37. Crump, T. Forthcoming. *Translation and Interpretation in the U.S. Government.* Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center. Through October 1, 1999, the following agencies had been surveyed:

Department of State, Office of Language Services

U.S. Foreign Service

Patent and Trademark Office

Social Security Administration

Internal Revenue Service

Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms

U.S. Secret Service

Office of Naval Intelligence

Central Intelligence Agency, Foreign Broadcast Information Service

Office of the Secretary of Defense

U.S. Postal Service

Library of Congress (9 divisions)

Defense Threat Reduction Agency

National Institutes of Health

Federal Bureau of Investigation

Executive Office of Immigration Review

38. Curran, M. and A. Carter. 1998. "Principles and Practices in FSI's Telephone Testing." Presentation to the Federal Interagency Language Roundtable, December 4, Arlington, VA.
39. For estimates of DOD language requirements, see Lay, Foreign Language and the Federal Government; and Crump, *Translation and Interpretation*.
40. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation*; Shoomaker, P.J. 1999. Comments before U.S. Congress, House Armed Forces Committee, Hearing on Military Readiness, March 22. Reported by Federal News Service, Congressional Universe (online service). Bethesda, MD: Congressional Information Service; Clark, W. 1999. Comments before U.S. Congress, House Armed Forces Committee, Hearing on U.S. Policy on the Balkans, March 17. Reported by Federal News Service, Congressional Universe (online service). Bethesda, MD: Congressional Information Service.
41. Nordin, G. 1999. "Language and the Department of Defense: Challenges for the 21st Century." *NFLC Policy Issues* 2, 1 (November).
42. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation*
43. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*; Nordin, "Language and the Department of Defense."
44. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
45. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
46. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
47. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
48. Burrough, B. 1998. *Dragonfly: NASA and the Crisis aboard* Mir. New York: Harper Collins. Burrough details many of the cultural and linguistic barriers aboard *Mir.*

49. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
50. We disregard English testing results, because this report focuses on foreign language needs of the United States and the corresponding supply and capacity supported by Title VI/F-H. It is not uncommon, however, for U.S. firms with foreign language needs to hire foreign nationals, whom we characterize as part of the "overseas" supply sector.
51. Garcia, O. and R. Otheguy. 1994. "The Value of Speaking a LOTE in U.S. Business," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 532 (March): 99–122.
52. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
53. Apfel, K. 1998. Comments before U.S. Congress. House Ways and Means Committee, Subcommittee on Social Security, Subcommittee on Human Resources, March 12. Reported by Federal News Service, Congressional Universe (online service). Bethesda, MD: Congressional Information Service.
54. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
55. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
56. The source for this information was the Web site of the Library of Congress: http://lcweb.loc.gov/rr/collects.html, September 9, 1999.
57. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
58. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
59. Private-sector proficiency requirements supplied by AT&T Language Line Services and Language Testing International. LTI now performs language audits to help companies determine the proficiency levels required for their language-specific jobs. For U.S. government data, see Crump. T. 1985. *Translations in the Federal Government 1985.* Alexandria, VA: American Translators Association.
60. For data on the starting points and length of foreign language instruction in other countries, see Bergentroft, R. 1994. "Foreign Language Instruction: A Comparative Perspective," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 532 (March): 8–34.
61. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
62. FBIS Recruitment Center, July 28, 1999 release.
63. For a report on the Serbo-Croatian contingency effort and the success the U.S. armed forces had in meeting the challenge, see Brecht, R., V. Frank, and W. Rivers. In preparation. Training Programs for Experienced Language Learners. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center.
64. Nordin, "Language and the Department of Defense."
65. A "cross-training" strategy, combining recruitment of experienced language learners and intensive language training, is also employed by these agencies in an effort to condense the training period.
66. Clark, Hearing on U.S. Policy on the Balkans.
67. Campbell, J. 1998. "Welcome to the National Foreign Affairs Training Center." Presentation to the Federal Interagency Language Roundtable, December 4, Arlington,

VA.; Cohen, B. and P. Kennedy. 1999. Comments before U.S. Congress, House Appropriations Committee, Subcommittee on Commerce, Justice, State and the Judiciary, April 14, 1999. Reported by Federal News Service, Congressional Universe (online service). Bethesda, MD: Congressional Information Service.

68. Broder, D. 1997. "Trade: The Monitors Are Missing," *Washington Post*, December 10, A25.
69. Crump, *Translation and Interpretation.*
70. Murray, M. 1998. Comments before U.S. Congress, Hearing of the Senate Judiciary Committee, "The High Tech Worker Shortage and Immigration Policy," February 25. Reported by Federal News Service, Congressional Universe (online service). Bethesda, MD: Congressional Information Service.
71. General Accounting Office. 1994. *Peace Corps: New Programs in Former Eastern Bloc Countries Should be Strengthened.* GAO/NSAID-95-6. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
72. General Accounting Office. 1994. *Food Safety: Changes Needed to Minimize Unsafe Chemicals in Food.* GAO/RECD-94-192. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
73. Commandant, U.S. Coast Guard. 1999. Memorandum on Foreign Language Needs Assessment. Memorandum P 291337Z JAN 99. Washington, DC: U.S. Coast Guard.
74. Shoomaker, Hearing on Military Readiness.
75. See Kenney, M. 1993. "DCI FLC Assessment of Language Needs." Unpublished manuscript. Washington, DC: Director of Central Intelligence Foreign Language Committee; and Rudy, S. 1996. "Getting beyond the Cold War: The New Foreign Language Challenges." Presentation to the National Foreign Language Center, July.
76. Kenney, "DCI FLC Assessment of Language Needs."
77. For details, see the most recent NSEP annual report, available from the National Security Education Program Office, Arlington, VA.
78. Pincus, W. 1998. "Spy Agencies Faulted For Missing Indian Tests; Wide Range of Failures Cited by Review Panel, But No Firings Recommended," *Washington Post*, June 3, A18.
79. Loeb, V. 1999. "At Hush-Hush CIA Unit, Talk of a Turnaround: Reforms Recharge Espionage Service," *Washington Post*, September 7, A8.
80. For excerpted remarks reported in the mass media, see Weiner, T. 1998. "CIA Study Details Failures; Scouring of System Is Urged," *New York Times*, June 3, A1; Pincus, W. 1998. "Spy Agencies Faulted For Missing Indian Tests; Wide Range of Failures Cited by Review Panel, But No Firings Recommended," *Washington Post*, June 3, A18. To date, Admiral Jeremiah's full report has not been made public.
81. United States Advisory Commission on Public Diplomacy. 1998. "Publics and Diplomats in the Global Communications Age." Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 14.
82. United States Advisory Commission, "Publics and Diplomats," 9.

83. Mueller, G. and C. Daubach. 1998. "Global Skills: Vital Components of Global Engagement," *Airpower Journal* (Summer).

84. Personal communication, February 9, 1999.

85. Fragomen, A.T. 1999. Comments before U.S. Congress, House Judiciary Committee Hearing on Immigration and Claims Efforts To Control Illegal Immigration, August 5, 1999. Reported by Federal News Service, Congressional Universe (online service). Bethesda, MD: Congressional Information Service.

86. Pinelli, T., Sato, Y., Barclay, R. and J. Kennedy. 1997. "Culture and Workplace Communications: A Comparison of Technical Communications Practices of Japanese and U.S. Aerospace Engineers and Scientists," *Journal of Air Transportation World Wide* 2, 1: 1–21.

87. See http://www.euromktg.com/globstats.

88. "English and Electronic Commerce: The Default Language." 1999. *The Economist*, May 15.

89. Taylor, H. 1998. "Americans Believe that Over Half the World's Population Speaks English." Harris Poll 61, November 4. New York: Louis Harris and Associates. The Harris results were confirmed in a less formal poll conducted by *USA Today*. See Carey, A. and M. Mullins. 1998. "Skills in Demand," *USA Today*, July 7, 1B.

90. Moxon, *et al.*, *Changing U.S. Business Needs for International Expertise*; Bikson and Law, *Global Preparedness and Human Resources*.

91. Farah, D. 1997. "Russian Mob, Drug Cartel Joining Forces," *Washington Post*, September 29, A1.

92. *A National Security Strategy for a New Century*. 1998. Washington, DC: The White House; *United States Strategic Plan for International Affairs*. 1999. Washington, DC: Office of Resources, Plans, and Policy, Department of State.

93. Hamilton, M. and L. Duke. 1998. "Africa's Potential as Trade Partner Attracts Corporate Interest," *Washington Post*, March 23, A14; Gugliotta, G. 1998. "Africa Trade Bill Passes House; Legislation to Liberalize Policy Overcomes Strong Opposition," *Washington Post*, March 12, A4; Baker, P. 1998. "President Unwraps Africa Policy, Stressing U.S. Role as Investor Instead of Donor," *Washington Post*, June 18, A18.

94. Department of Defense. 1999. "DOD Launches African Center for Strategic Studies." *DefenseLink Press Release 343-99*, July 22. Washington, DC: Department of Defense.

95. Recall that we limit this report to the evaluation of Title VI and Fulbright-Hays, which by legislative mandate treat language as a matter of *external* national security. The National Foreign Language Center also tracks domestic needs for language, but Title VI and Fulbright-Hays were not created to address such needs.

96. The clients of Language Testing International and AT&T Language Line Services prefer to remain anonymous for exactly this reason.

97. For Quebec, see Selten, R. and J. Pool. 1991. "The Distribution of Foreign Language Skills as a Game Equilibrium." In R. Selten (ed.), *Game Equilibrium Models*, 64–87; and Ridler and Pons-Ridler, "Language Economics: A Case Study of French." For Israel, see

Spolsky, B. and E. Shohamy. 1999. "The Dynamics of Israeli Language Policy." *NFLC Reports*. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center. For Europe, see Grin, F. 1996. "European Research on the Economics of Language: Recent Results and Relevance to Canada." In *Official Languages and the Economy.* Papers presented at a colloquium hosted by the Official Languages Support Branch, Department of Canadian Heritage, May 5, 1995. Ottawa: Department of Canadian Heritage, 36–51.

CHAPTER 5

Recommendations for Strengthening the Language Component of Title VI/F-H

In this chapter we present 11 recommendations for strengthening the role of Title VI/F-H in meeting language needs for national security.[1] It is our hope and intention that they will be incorporated into strategic planning for, and into the administration and evaluation of, Title VI/F-H programs. Each of the 11 recommendations that follow addresses the language component of all 14 programs covered by the legislation. We provide a rationale for each recommendation, based on the past performance of Title VI/F-H and on America's language needs in the future. We also identify the pertinent goal of Title VI/F-H (knowledge, experts, practitioners, citizens, and capacity) that the recommendation addresses. Finally, we suggest specific performance indicators by means of which the successful implementation of each recommendation might be judged. Some of our recommendations mirror provisions of the newly reauthorized Title VI/F-H legislation.

The recommendations that follow may be viewed as a set of objectives for Title VI/F-H's next five-year strategic plan. The indicators constitute our proposals for the annual performance plans required by the Government Performance and Results Act of 1993 (GPRA).

Recommendation 1

Strengthen the focus of Title VI/F-H on language in general, and especially on the less commonly taught languages (LCTLs), by reemphasizing the importance of language in exchange, area studies, international studies, and international business studies programs, and by promoting focused efforts to improve recruitment, retention, and programming at flagship LCTL programs.

Rationale

In America, as in most other countries of the world, language study remains the clearest and most accepted indicator of understanding another culture, which is why the original Title VI legislation was entitled "Title VI—Language Development." However, over the years, the original focus on language has been replaced with a much broader mandate for area, international, and international business studies. Although this broader mission is indeed appropriate for Title VI/F-H, attention to language and the production of functional linguistic competence in the graduates of the nation's colleges and universities has tended to diminish. Fortunately, Title VI/F-H has proven its ability to sustain the focus on language in higher education and on the LCTLs. But because language in general and the LCTLs in particular—in spite of Title VI/F-H—are not receiving enough support to allow them to be made available to all Americans, we believe that it is necessary to concentrate on the proven strengths of the program.

Goals Addressed: Experts, Practitioners, Citizens

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Language enrollments, particularly in the LCTLs, across the nation
- Language proficiency of graduates of Title VI/F-H programs, as determined by enrollments in higher-level language courses and study abroad programs or, preferably, by standardized tests
- Number of Title VI/F-H–supported programs testing their graduates
- Number and range of languages taught in institutions around the country
- Number and range of institutions offering a broad choice of languages

Recommendation 2

Improve the supply of proficient candidates to meet federal language requirements for national security and economic competitiveness through support of language programs and individual learners at flagship institutions.

Rationale

The intelligence and defense communities, as well as numerous other federal agencies and offices involved in areas related to U.S. national security, rely increasingly on professional college graduates in many disciplines such as engineering, international relations, law, and other fields, who posses high levels of language competency and international knowledge and experience. Because linguistically competent candidates are not readily available for employment by these agencies, significant federal resources continue to be invested in in-house training programs for higher-demand languages, supplemented by contractors for lower demand languages as well as "surge" requirements. This approach has not been sufficient to meet the expanding federal language requirements, in spite of the progress in language learning technologies. Through support from Title VI, the higher education community could significantly expand the number and quality of language-proficient graduates in all disciplines available for federal service.

Goals Addressed: Practitioners

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Number of proficient graduates in critical languages, as determined by recognized metrics
- Number of graduates from flagship language programs (at the BA, MA, and Ph.D. levels) entering federal service

Recommendation 3

Build the nation's language infrastructure, specifically by strengthening the architecture of language fields.[2]

Rationale

The administrators and faculty of every institutional language program rely upon their professional field for knowledge, services, tools, and connections. To the extent that fieldwide mechanisms are adequate, every program in every institution profits. Thus, for example, if a field has established standards for instruction and teacher development, there is a much greater likelihood that high-quality instruction will be available to students in all programs. To the extent that the architecture of a particular language field is weak, institutions are left to rely upon their own resources; that is, on the individual faculty members' knowledge and ability. Under such circumstances, good programs in that field often can be found only in elite institutions. (Even existing flagship programs have difficulty mustering all the resources needed for their own purposes, so they cannot be expected to support other programs.) Given the expanding language need described in Chapter 4, many more institutions across the country will have to offer quality language programming, and the role of the professional field in supporting programs as well as individual scholars will become even more important.

An important part of field architecture is strategic planning, which has to be developed for many fields. Language fields, particularly in the LCTLs, are becoming more involved in strategic planning, but tradition and resources inhibit the process. Thus, the newly reauthorized Title VI/F-H legislation adds to Section 603's list of authorized activities for LRCs a "significant focus on the teaching and learning needs of the less commonly taught languages, including an assessment of the strategic needs of the United States, the determination of ways to meet those needs nationally, and the publication and dissemination of instructional materials in the less commonly taught languages."

Goal Addressed: Capacity

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Levels of activity of national field wide organizations and enterprises directed at strategic planning, standards setting, resource sharing, and other efforts to improve programming across the board in schools, colleges, and universities nationwide
- Existence of mechanisms to transfer input from the language fields to the research and training agendas of Centers for International Business Education and Research (CIBERs), National Resource Centers (NRCs), and Learning Resource Centers (LRCs)
- Integration of world areas among NRCs and between NRCs and LRCs
- Number and effectiveness of the LRCs concentrating on specific languages, language families, or world areas
- Number of incentives, mechanisms, and resources for language-specific, field-wide strategic planning

Recommendation 4

Increase the cost-effectiveness and quality of LCTL programming, as well as institutional access to such programming, through systemic resource sharing among educational institutions across the country.

Rationale

Even with Title VI/F-H support, no single institution can bring to bear in its programs the resources required by the full range of learners in today's world of global communications. This situation is exacerbated for the LCTLs by the scarcity of resources for the development of learning materials. Sharing is the most cost-effective means to enrich the resources available at each institution, particularly for LCTL programs.

At this stage, a major effort is underway in the academic, federal, and private sectors to use the World Wide Web and related technologies to distribute "learning objects" and instructional modules that will enable institutions and individuals to customize language programs using shared resources.[3] The appropriateness of sharing resources using the latest information technology is reflected in the newly reauthorized Title VI of the HEA, which defines as one of the purposes of Part A "to support cooperative efforts promoting access to and the dissemination of international and foreign language knowledge, teaching materials, and research, through education, government, business, civic and nonprofit sectors in the United States, through the use of advanced technologies."

Goal Addressed: Capacity

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Extent of resource sharing in Title VI/F-H programs in support of research and infrastructure building
- Existence of resource sharing systems using the latest communication and information technology and object-oriented learning designs
- Number of national field-based centers that serve as catalysts for the sharing of information, products, and services for the teaching and learning of languages in specific families or world areas[4]
- Extent of research and development assistance for the technological infrastructure required to support the sharing of learning objects and instructional modules
- Amount of resource sharing in research and development efforts between academic institutions and government agencies involved in language learning and teaching

Recommendation 5

Involve nonacademic sectors, particularly the federal, overseas, and heritage sectors, in Title VI/F-H language efforts, especially as they contribute to strengthening the architecture of language fields.

Rationale

Although Title VI/F-H is focused on the academic sector, language fields comprise expertise and resources from all five capacity sectors: academic, federal, private, heritage, and overseas.[5] Each sector has significant expertise and resources that can be brought to bear on the language problems Title VI/F-H is attempting to address. In addition, the federal, private, heritage, and overseas sectors also have significant needs that Title VI/F-H is designed to meet. The affinity is particularly clear between the academic sector and federal enterprises dedicated to improving the nation's capacity in language on behalf of national security. Title VI/F-H can and should be understood as directly responsible for promoting symbiosis between these two sectors.

Goals Addressed: Capacity, Practitioners

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Existence and effectiveness of forums for the exchange of information among the sectors, particularly between the academic and federal
- Existence and effectiveness of networks for the sharing of expertise and resources among the sectors, particularly between the academic and federal sectors
- Number and scope of initiatives to exploit the natural affinity between the heritage and academic sectors, and to address the problems that divide the two sectors
- Extent and effectiveness of efforts in the academic, federal, and private sectors to establish and coordinate standards, particularly in instructional and learning-support technology

Recommendation 6

Develop and implement mechanisms for strategic planning and management of a more targeted applied research agenda, which, while coordinated with and supportive of emerging basic research in second language acquisition (SLA) and the other cognitive sciences, is explicitly responsive to the needs of language fields and institutional programs.

Rationale

Basic research in cognition, learning, and pedagogy, within and outside of SLA, has a direct impact on the nation's capacity to bring learners to a functional proficiency in a second or third language. In general, however, the application of *basic* SLA research to language programming takes years, if not decades, and aggressive action is required if that time is to be shortened. Also, basic research is conducted, and learning tools, materials, and designs are often created, without consideration of the needs of language fields or, in the case of materials development, of standards that might guarantee broader acceptance.

Goal Addressed: Knowledge

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Existence of a process to direct information about needs and standards from language fields and flagship programs to relevant Title VI/F-H programs
- Establishment of a process to set priorities for applied and basic research supported by Title VI/F-H for the purpose of making such research more responsive to changing national needs and curing deficiencies in the nation's language capacity
- Existence and effectiveness of mechanisms to shorten the time required to translate basic research into practical tools and designs for language programming

Recommendation 7

Establish within appropriate Title VI/F-H programs a commitment to assist language and literature departments in introducing or strengthening the presence of applied linguistics and SLA in their graduate programs.[6]

Rationale

It is an accepted truth in applied linguistics that much, if not most, of the basic research in SLA is done by linguists and ESL specialists using ESL data. Behind this truth lies the fact that relatively few SLA experts are found in the nation's language and literature graduate programs,[7] because such programs offer so few opportunities for graduate students to concentrate on applied linguistics and SLA. To make matters worse, the number of institutions offering general applied linguistics degrees has dropped sharply in recent decades.

Goals Addressed: Knowledge, Capacity, Experts

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Number of graduate programs in language and literature departments that offer a graduate concentration in SLA
- Degree of sharing of graduate resources among institutions wishing to expand offerings in SLA
- Number of SLA scholars and projects funded by Title VI/F-H graduate training and research programs

Recommendation 8

Broaden the range and increase the number of professionals who have the linguistic competence to practice their professions globally.

Rationale

Professional practitioners in the political, social, and economic spheres must now practice on a global scale. There is a growing awareness that language is an important asset for professional practice. America's professionals are poorly prepared linguistically to practice abroad, particularly in nonwestern cultures.

Goal Addressed: Practitioners

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Existence of distance-learning language programs designed to meet the needs of professional practitioners and accessible to them when the need and opportunity arise in the workplace
- Existence of instruments for the assessment of language proficiency suitable for use in measuring task performance in specific professional domains
- Level of understanding and documentation of the real-world language needs of professional practitioners

Recommendation 9

Increase the efficiency of Title VI/F-H–supported programs in developing and providing to policy makers information, resources, and expertise in the domains of national security and economic competitiveness.[8]

Rationale

Policy makers often make decisions without drawing on the knowledge and information available in the Title VI/F-H community. Federal support of research in Title VI/F-H implies the practical application of the fruits of that research in the public and private sectors. The problem is that few channels exist to facilitate such application.

Goal Addressed: Knowledge

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Linkages between academic institutions and federal research bodies, such as the Library of Congress's Congressional Research Service, the General

Accounting Office, MITRE Corporation, and research units in other federal agencies with language-specific responsibilities, such as the Defense Language Institute, the Foreign Service Institute, the National Security Agency, and others
- A database on national language needs that makes readily available current information and data crucial to policy decisions at all levels and in all sectors

Recommendation 10

Make Title VI/F-H programs more prominent in presenting the need for language proficiency in the United States, specifically with regard to national security and economic competitiveness.

Rationale

National security and economic competitiveness depend on the willingness of a significant cadre of citizens to become proficient in languages other than English. However, most Americans are unaware of the linguistic aspects of national security and economic competitiveness.[9] We need ways to educate Americans more broadly on the need for language.

Goal Addressed: Citizens

Recommended Performance Indicators

- Number of studies on national language needs, national language capacity, and national attitudes towards language and language study
- Effectiveness of dissemination to policy makers and citizens of information on national language needs, capacity, and attitudes toward language

Recommendation 11

Explore the establishment of mechanisms to monitor national needs and capacity in language and to assess how those needs and that capacity are addressed by federal, state, and local programs, including Title VI/F-H.

Rationale

Over the years a number of recommendations have been made along these lines:

- In 1979 the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies proposed establishing a National Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies

- In 1998, the "Fulbright at 50" task force proposed the establishment of a Federal International Coordinating Committee, which, while focused on exchange, could be extended to the language mission in light of the natural symbiosis between language and exchange

It might also be possible to establish an ad hoc national commission to explore the federal government's needs for language proficiency. This commission could seek a permanent mechanism for the specification of the government's language needs and for verifying those needs within the federal system and between the federal sector and academe.

Goals Addressed: Citizens, Capacity

A Problem and a Solution

The logic of the preceding recommendations may be understood within the strategic market forces framework described in Chapter 2. Recall that if it were functioning ideally, the language market would have needs driving demand, demand provoking supply, and supply determining capacity. A properly functioning "language economy" should guarantee that the nation's needs for language provoke an adequate capacity for language competence in the United States. If the model were functioning as described, however, a federal program like Title VI/F-H would be unnecessary. The data presented in Chapter 3 demonstrate (1) that the nation's language needs are not being met, and (2) that matters would be significantly worse without Title VI/F-H.

The Problem

Clearly, there is more to the picture of need and capacity than the ideal model of market forces implies. In reality, the relationships among the variables in the model are far less direct and smoothly operational. In the real world, the system can be seen as essentially dysfunctional (Figure 5.1).

The data presented in Chapters 3 and 4 show a tenuous relationship between the strategic and tactical levels. For the reasons explained in Chapter 4, America's needs for language do not provoke the appropriate level of demand. Taking the case of air bags in automobiles as an illustration, one might assert that a need for air bags emerged as soon as cars were powerful enough to cause serious bodily injury in collisions. Demand remained weak, however, until that need was more clearly perceived, until consumers and auto makers gained confidence that the devices actually worked, and until the cost was shown to be reasonable.

Similar arguments can be made for language competence. Americans will not demand language competence unless and until (1) they understand that language is necessary for the security and economic competitiveness of the country, (2) they become convinced that the linguistic expertise they are acquiring and using is effective

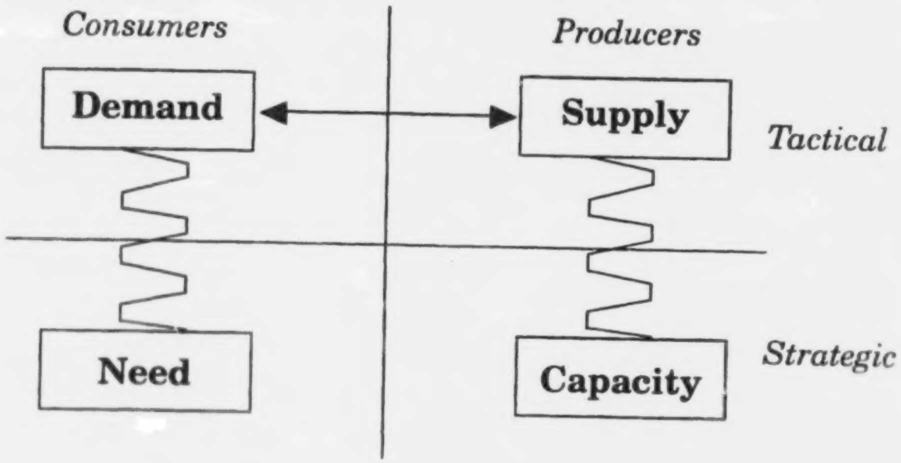

Figure 5.1. Model of Actual Market Forces

in meeting cross-cultural communication needs, and (3) the cost in time, effort, and dollars appears reasonable. These conditions have not yet been met in the eyes of the general public, who apparently believe that (1) foreign language competence is not personally necessary, given the popularity of English around the world and the growing availability and quality of language tools and services, (2) acquiring functional proficiency in a language is so difficult that using native speakers of other languages who have acquired English is the only reasonable alternative, and (3) the cost of learning language is prohibitively high in terms of time and effort, especially in view of the growing availability of effective language tools and services. It is the failure to appreciate the value of language proficiency that has produced the disjunction between national need and effective demand for language competence in the United States.

On the provider side of the equation, there is evidence that the academic sector of capacity is not structured to supply the kind of linguistic competence required in today's world (see Chapter 3). Accordingly, the federal and private sectors have added their own facilities, often at significant expense, to produce the language competence they require.

The Solution

The problems posed by the disconnect between the short-term, tactical elements of supply and demand and the strategic, long-term elements of capacity and need represent serious threats to national security and economic competitiveness and so demand the attention of the federal government.

Although there is sufficient evidence that Title VI/F-H, as the principal federal intervention in the language economy, has been successful in developing the academic infrastructure needed to produce the foreign language knowledge and human resources required for national security and economic competitiveness, the changes documented in Chapter 4 argue for enhancing—and in some cases, redirecting—the legislation's role in building the nation's capacity in foreign language. Most of our recommendations are directed at building capacity and ensuring that the capacity thus created meets national needs (Figure 5.2).

Given the time required to build on the strategic level, we have offered Recommendation 1 to immediately launch an aggressive campaign to augment supply. Some of our recommendations are aimed at an intervention responsive to the disjunctions noted above. Specifically, we propose to provide direct input into capacity design based on a clear understanding of national needs. In addition, the studies and databases we recommend focus as well on the vertical disjunctions, especially by providing an accurate understanding of the articulation of demand and need, so that demand better reflects strategic need. Examples of an intervention made possible by this information might be marketing and advertising campaigns designed to concretely highlight the need for language expertise and intercultural competence. A second objective of this data collection is a better understanding of the relationship between supply and capacity so that an intervention can be designed to guarantee that the available capacity is structured to produce the right mix of languages, subject matter domains, and proficiencies.

Several recommendations, including Recommendation 4, are designed to address the need on the part of campus language programs to do "more with less." Those programs have to respond to more learners, and more kinds of learners, by offering more languages, addressing more tasks in more domains, and doing so at widely varying levels of competence. In addition, campuses have to find a way to expand their institutional language mission without significantly increasing costs. We contend that one of the best ways to meet the "more with less" challenge for language,

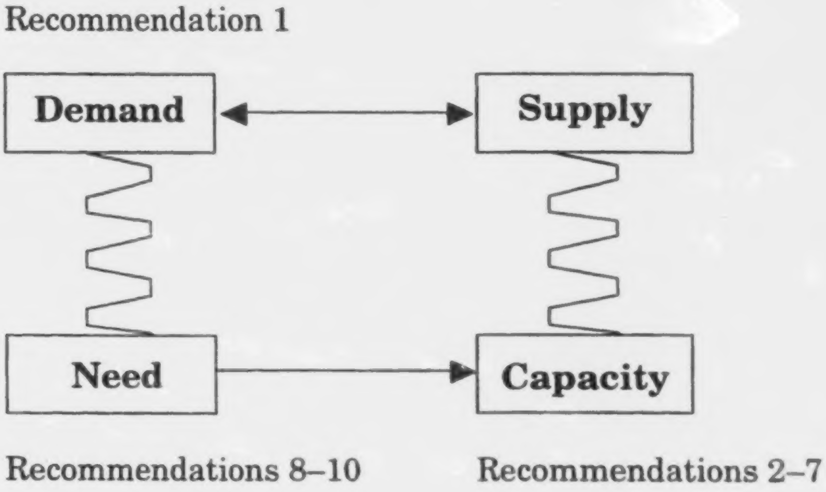

Figure 5.2. Market Forces Model with Interventions

as for all of education, is to develop a system of resource sharing using modern communications and information technology. A major national initiative to do just that is underway. The partners include the Learning Technology Standards Committee of the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE), the Instructional Management Systems Project, the Advanced Distributed Learning Initiative, the Alliance of Remote Instructional Authoring and Distribution Networks for Europe, the International Organization for Standardization, the Educational Object Economy, the Learning Object Metadata Group, the NFLC, and Educause. The project is directed at establishing learning technology standards with the goals of:

- Adapting instructional technology to better support the exchange of information between students and teachers, among peers, and between individuals and the instructional environment
- Simplifying and reducing the cost of developing instructional systems
- Promoting reuse and the sharing of instructional materials
- Enabling instructional systems to communicate and inter-operate
- Helping adapt instruction to students' individual needs[10]

Technology that allows resource sharing is now a reality. More and more institutions and language fields are prepared to accept this mode of cost-effective and student-responsive programming. In fact, several projects are already underway in the LCTLs with the involvement of the National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages (NCOLCTL) and the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC).[11] If successful, this approach offers the possibility of significantly improving the national capacity in language learning by enabling virtually every school, college, and university around the country to offer all the languages needed in the twenty-first century.

Conclusion

In general, it is imperative that Title VI/F-H, as the largest federal program supporting language in the national interest, continues to take responsibility for building and maintaining national capacity in the nation's education system. The preceding recommendations are intended to sharpen that focus in light of the growing need for citizens competent in languages other than English. There are many language enterprises at the national level in the United States that can and should be brought to bear on the agenda articulated here to strengthen the nation's language capacity.[12] As stated in Recommendation 5, Title VI/F-H could play a coordinating role in the process by establishing mechanisms for cooperation and strategic planning.

A final word on funding for Title VI/F-H: given the impact documented in Chapter 3 and its relatively modest funding levels, Title VI/F-H must be judged an outstanding example of cost-effective federal programming. However, considering as well the changing world and the implications for language capacity in the United States described in Chapter 4, there is every reason to argue for significant increases in the federal investment to meet the simple, but very challenging, charge of the legislation:

> *The security, stability, and economic vitality of the United States in a complex global era depend on American experts in and citizens knowledgeable about world regions, foreign languages, and international affairs, as well as on a strong research base in those areas. (Title VI—International Education Programs. Part A, Sec. 601: Findings and Purposes.)*

Notes

1. Recall from Chapter 1 that we use the definition of national security provided by *A National Security Strategy of Engagement and Enlargement*: "enhancing our security;" "promoting prosperity at home" and "promoting democracy." In this report, we assume that these goals entail activities requiring competence in communicating with speakers of languages other than English by representatives of our embassies around the world, of international health organizations, of companies exporting goods and services abroad, and of all other public and private enterprises involved in political, social and economic domains related to national security. *A National Security Strategy of Engagement and Enlargement*. 1996. Washington, DC: The White House.
2. "Language field" has been defined by Richard Brecht and his collaborators. See Brecht, R. and A. Walton. 1994. "National Strategic Planning in the Less Commonly Taught Languages," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 532: 190–212; and Brecht, R., with J. Caemmerer and A. Walton. 1995. *Russian in the United States: A Case Study of America's Language Needs and Capacities.* National Foreign Language Center Monograph Series. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center. The recommendation to build the nation's language infrastructure by strengthening the architecture of language fields was first made by Richard Lambert in his evaluation of Title VI in the early 1970s. See Lambert, R. 1973. *Language and Area Studies Review.* Monograph 17. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
3. MITRE Corporation has reported to the director of central intelligence on the status of several national and international efforts to develop standards for multilingual computing and network-based learning environments. Among these is the Instructional Management Systems Project, a joint effort of more than 100 institutions of higher education and several major software vendors, including Oracle and Microsoft. MITRE has been particularly active in forging the link between on-line instruction for language learning and the highly technical, esoteric standards for multilingual computing. The NFLC, with funding from the Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education, is now implementing Web-based resource sharing systems for learning modules in Hausa, Korean, Swahili, and Yoruba, with additional languages planned.

4. Each center, in cooperation with existing professional organizations and enterprises, will assume general responsibility for field development, for assessing the field's needs, for meeting those needs, and particularly for providing direct assistance to institutions to establish new or improve existing language programs. Anyone, anywhere, who is interested in a specific language will know that there is a telephone number or URL where high-quality information and assistance is available on demand. See Brecht, R. and A. Walton. 1998. "National Language Needs and Capacities: A Recommendation for Action." In J. Hawkins, C. Haro, M. Kazanjian, G. Merkx. and D. Wiley (eds.), *International Education in the New Global Era. Proceedings of a National Policy Conference on the Higher Education Act, Title VI, and Fulbright-Hays Programs.* Los Angeles: International Studies and Overseas Programs, University of California, 93–104.
5. For definitions of the five capacity sectors, see Brecht, R., with J. Caemmerer and A. Walton. 1995. *Russian in the United States: A Case Study of America's Language Needs and Capacities.* National Foreign Language Center Monograph Series. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center.
6. By language and literature departments, we refer to the traditional administrative units on the nation's college and university campuses devoted to the study of specific languages or language families and their literatures, where the bulk of postsecondary language instruction resides (outside of English as a second language). This normally refers to the CTLs as well as those LCTLs that have enrollments high enough to permit the institutionalization of their programs.
7. Evidence for this assertion comes from, among others, Brecht *et al., Russian in the United States: A Case Study of America's Language Needs and Capacities*; Laurasian Institution. 1996. "A Field Survey of U.S. Precollegiate Japanese Language Programs." Atlanta, IL: Laurasian Institution; and the NFLC's survey of the field strength of the members of NCOLCTL (see Chapters 3 and 4 for results of this survey).
8. See the recent proposal of the Coalition for International Education in this regard. Kazanjian, M. 1998. "HEA–Title VI and Fulbright-Hays 102(b)(6)." Unpublished memorandum. Washington, DC: Coalition for International Education.
9. A recent Harris poll found that, on average, Americans think that 52 percent of the world's population speaks English. "Younger adults, and people without a college education, tend to believe the proportion of the world's population who speak English is even higher, well over 50 percent. But even very well educated and older people greatly overestimate the world's proportion of English speakers. Large minorities of both college graduates (43 percent) and those with postgraduate degrees (42 percent) believe that more than two out of five people worldwide speak English." Taylor, H. 1998. "Americans Believe that Over Half the World's Population Speaks English." Harris Poll 61, November 4. New York: Louis Harris and Associates.
10. Cited from MITRE Corporation. "Learning Technology Standards and the U.S. Government Foreign Language Community." MITRE Paper MP 98BVSR. McLean, VA: MITRE Corporation, 3.
11. These projects include an NSEP-funded grant to the NFLC and to the National Association of Self-Instructional Language Programs to upgrade the NASILP

infrastructure; *CouncilNet*, a project funded at the NCOLCTL with support from the Ford Foundation to provide resource sharing mechanisms for the LCTL fields; and *LangNet*, an ambitious project to promote the development and dissemination of language-instruction modules over the Internet. The NFLC is also involved in several other language-specific projects for Web-enabled modularized resource sharing in the Central Asian languages, Russian, and Arabic.

12. Among the national language enterprises that might be involved in the realization of the agenda presented here are: the Center for Applied Linguistics, the Defense Language Institute, the Foreign Service Institute, the Interagency Language Roundtable, the Director of Central Intelligence Foreign Language Committee, the National Cryptologic School, the National Foreign Language Center, the Title VI-funded National Foreign Language Resource Centers, all the national language associations (including the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages, the Joint National Committee for Language, the Modern Language Association and its affiliated Association of Departments of Foreign Languages, and the National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages), all of the language-specific national teachers associations, the state and regional language associations, the Association of Public and Proprietary Language Schools, and other private language service providers such as the American Translators Association. The now defunct Center for the Advancement of Language Learning would certainly have been on this list.

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APPENDIX 3.1

National Survey of Language Fields, April 1997

THE NATIONAL FOREIGN LANGUAGE CENTER
NATIONAL SURVEY OF LANGUAGE FIELDS

Instructions: Please answer to the best of your ability. If you do not have the information necessary to complete an item, an informed guess or no answer are both acceptable; we prefer a partially completed questionnaire to no response at all.

Background Information

1a. Name of respondent:

1b. Administrative title (if applicable):

1c. Academic title (if applicable):

1d. Name of organization or institution:

1e. Foreign language field:

THE BASE OF EXPERTISE

2. There is sufficient second language acquisition (SLA) expertise available in this foreign language field to guide the design and development of language programs.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

3. Please rate the adequacy of the archives, databases, library holdings, on-line sources, and computer resources needed for the teaching and research needs of the field (with 1 being Excellent and 5 Very Inadequate):

		Excellent				Very Inadequate
a.	Archives	1	2	3	4	5
b.	Databases	1	2	3	4	5
c.	Libraries	1	2	3	4	5
d.	On-Line	1	2	3	4	5
e.	Computer	1	2	3	4	5
f.	Other (specify)	1	2	3	4	5

4. The pool of native speakers in this foreign language field is sufficient to serve the teaching and research needs of the profession.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

5. The pool of trained professionals in this foreign language field is sufficient to serve the teaching and research needs of the profession.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

6. There is an oversupply of trained professionals in this foreign language field.

   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Uncertain
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly disagree

7. Well-established standards exist to guide curriculum development, teacher training, and material development in this field.

   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Uncertain
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly disagree

8. Electronic or consortial mechanisms in the field exist that enable expertise and resources from around the profession to be pooled and disseminated to programs and/or individuals throughout the country.

   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Uncertain
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly disagree

9. There are useful and effective mechanisms for strategic planning in the field.

   1. Strongly agree
   2. Agree
   3. Uncertain
   4. Disagree
   5. Strongly disagree

10. There are institutionalized means to carry out policies developed through strategic planning.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

11. There are organizations working effectively to improve the field.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

12. These organizations are effective in the following ways (please circle the closest rating, with 1 being strong agreement and 5 strong disagreement):

		Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
a.	Improving individual scholars	1	2	3	4	5
b.	Strategic planning	1	2	3	4	5
c.	Institutional enrichment	1	2	3	4	5
d.	Intellectual exchange	1	2	3	4	5
e.	Networking	1	2	3	4	5
f.	Conveying prestige	1	2	3	4	5
g.	Something else [specify]					

13. There is a need for new, improved, and more effective organizations to promote this foreign language field.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

INFRASTRUCTURE

14. This language field has an active research tradition in second language acquisition (SLA).

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

15. This SLA research has a direct effect on language instruction in the field.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

16. Please rate the quality of research:

		Very Poor	Poor	Average	Good	Excellent
a.	Theoretical linguistics	1	2	3	4	5
b.	Applied linguistics	1	2	3	4	5
c.	SLA	1	2	3	4	5
d.	Cognitive psychology	1	2	3	4	5
e.	Anthropology	1	2	3	4	5
f.	Cultural/Literary Studies	1	2	3	4	5

17. Graduate programs in this language field are adequate to meet the current and projected research and teaching needs of the profession.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

18. Do any graduate programs in this foreign language field offer concentrations in SLA?

19. Please list the three top or "flagship" graduate programs of highest quality in this language field.

1) ____________________	Does this program permit concentration in SLA?
	Does this program provide leadership and/or share resources with the field?
2) ____________________	Does this program permit concentration in SLA?
	Does this program provide leadership and/or share resources with the field?

3) ____________________ Does this program permit concentration in SLA?

Does this program provide leadership and/or share resources with the field?

20. Please list the three top or "flagship" undergraduate programs of highest quality in this language field.

1) ____________________ Does this program provide leadership and/or share resources with the field?

2) ____________________ Does this program provide leadership and/or share resources with the field?

3) ____________________ Does this program provide leadership and/or share resources with the field?

21. The language field has regular and effective channels of communication and collaboration with the area studies programs at the campus level.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

22. The language field has regular and effective channels of communication and collaboration with the area studies field at the national level.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

23. The area studies programs are strong advocates of this language field at the campus level.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

24. Language programs in this field are strongly allied with their area studies counterparts at both the local and national levels.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

25. Title VI programs are important to this foreign language field.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

26. Title VI-sponsored National Resource Centers for Foreign Language and Area Studies (NRCs) provide important services and/or resources to the field.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

27. Please list the three most important services NRCs provide.

    1) ______________________________

    2) ______________________________

    3) ______________________________

28. There are sufficient high quality and accessible outlets for the publication and distribution of learning materials in the field.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

29. The quality of learning materials currently published in this language field is:

    1. Excellent
    2. Good
    3. Intermediate
    4. Poor
    5. Very Poor

30. Have any institutions or associations established web sites to provide services to the field?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

31. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list the institutions or associations, and if possible, give their Internet addresses.

    1. Name:______________________________ Address: ________________

    2. Name:______________________________ Address: ________________

    3. Name:______________________________ Address: ________________

32. Does the field have formal linkages between language professionals in the U.S. and colleagues in the language's overseas country or countries of origin?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

33. If you answered yes to the previous question, please describe the two most important such linkages by name, and sponsoring institution or organization, if applicable.

    1. Name:____________________________ Org.: ___________________

    2. Name:____________________________ Org.: ___________________

    3. Name:____________________________ Org.: ___________________

34. Please characterize the amount of collaboration between researchers and teachers in the U.S. and those of the language's country of origin.

    1. Very high
    2. High
    3. Intermediate
    4. Low
    5. Very Low

35. Please list two or more forms of such collaboration, if possible.

    1. ______________________________
    2. ______________________________
    3. ______________________________

36. How adequate are student exchange programs with the language's country of origin?

    1. Very adequate
    2. Adequate
    3. Not quite adequate
    4. Inadequate
    5. Very inadequate

37. Please list two or more examples of the most prominent student exchanges, if possible.

    1. ______________________________
    2. ______________________________
    3. ______________________________

38. How adequate are faculty exchange programs with the language's country of origin?

    1. Very adequate
    2. Adequate
    3. Not quite adequate
    4. Inadequate
    5. Very inadequate

39. Please list two or more examples of the most prominent faculty exchanges, if possible.

1. ____

2. ____

3. ____

40. Is there an international organization devoted to this language field that brings U.S. professionals together with foreign colleagues?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Don't know

41. If you answered yes to the previous question, please characterize the degree of participation in this organization by U.S. language professionals:

1. Very high
2. High
3. Intermediate
4. Low
5. Very low

RELATIONSHIP TO THE U.S. LANGUAGE-HERITAGE ETHNIC COMMUNITY

42. Does this language field have formal channels of communication with the language heritage community in the U.S.?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Don't know

43. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list up to three of these channels.

1. ____

2. ____

3. ____

44. Please estimate the percentage of professionals in this language field who are native speakers.

    1. More than 80%
    2. 60%-80%
    3. 40%-60%
    4. 20%-40%
    5. Less than 20%

45. Please estimate the percentage of undergraduate enrollment in this field's language courses constituted by students from the ethnic heritage community.

    1. More than 80%
    2. 60%-80%
    3. 40%-60%
    4. 20%-40%
    5. Less than 20%

46. Please estimate the percentage of enrollment in graduate programs involving this language field that is constituted by students from the ethnic heritage community.

    1. More than 80%
    2. 60%-80%
    3. 40%-60%
    4. 20%-40%
    5. Less than 20%

47. Please characterize the level of support from the heritage community for language or area studies programs at the undergraduate level.

    1. Very strong
    2. Strong
    3. Intermediate
    4. Weak
    5. Very weak

48. Please characterize the level of support from the heritage community for language or area studies programs at the graduate level.

    1. Very strong
    2. Strong
    3. Intermediate
    4. Weak
    5. Very weak

49. If you indicated support in the answer to either of the previous two questions, please list up to three types of support.

    1. ____
    2. ____
    3. ____

ASSESSMENT

50. Does this foreign language field have national recognized standardized tests or proficiency exams for students?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

51. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list up to three such tests, the skills tested, and who administers the test.

    1) Test:
        Skills:
        Given by:

    2) Test:
        Skills:
        Given by:

    3) Test:
        Skills:
        Given by:

52. These tests are valid and useful (indicate level of agreement).

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

53. Does this language field have a standardized mechanism for program assessment, accreditation or other feedback?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

54. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list up to three of these channels.

    1. ____________________
    2. ____________________
    3. ____________________

COLLABORATION AND NETWORKING

55. Does the field have annual meetings?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

56. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list one or more sponsors of such meetings.

    1. ____________________
    2. ____________________
    3. ____________________

57. If you answered yes to question 55, indicate the extent of your agreement with the following statement: These meetings are effective in strengthening the field.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

58. Are there formal linkages between the academic sector and federal or private sectors in this language field?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

59. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list one or more sponsors of such linkages.

    1. ____

    2. ____

    3. ____

60. If you answered yes to question 58, indicate the extent of your agreement with the following statement: These linkages are effective in strengthening the field.

    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

61. Are there any organizations or institutions other than Title VI programs that provide direct financial assistance to this language field?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

62. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list up to three such funders.

1. ____________________

2. ____________________

3. ____________________

DATA COLLECTION

63. Please indicate if data on the following topics is regularly collected, and if so, which organization collects the data.

	Yes	No	Don't Know	If yes, list organization
a. Enrollments				____________
b. Proficiency levels				____________
c. Programs				____________
d. Research results				____________
e. Funding sources				____________
f. Other:				____________

64. Are useful data on Second Language Acquisition in this language field readily available?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Don't know

65. If you answered yes to the previous question, please complete the following:

a. What kind of data: ____________________

Where are they stored? (List up to three sites):	Ease of Access (circle):
b. ____________________	Hi Med Lo
c. ____________________	Hi Med Lo
d. ____________________	Hi Med Lo

SUMMER LANGUAGE TRAINING:

66. Does the field have intensive summer institutes or programs for language training?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

67. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list up to three such programs.

    1. ______________________________
    2. ______________________________
    3. ______________________________

68. Do these summer institutes or programs offer coverage that otherwise would not be available?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

69. Please rate the quality of the summer institutes or programs:

    1. Very high
    2. High
    3. Intermediate
    4. Low
    5. Very low
    6. Don't know

STUDY ABROAD

70. Are there study abroad opportunities for students?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

71. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list up to three such programs.

    1. ______________________
    2. ______________________
    3. ______________________

72. Do any national organizations assist in establishing or maintaining these study abroad programs?

    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Don't know

73. If you answered yes to the previous question, please list up to three such organizations.

    1. ______________________
    2. ______________________
    3. ______________________

74. Are there any standards for study abroad programs in the field?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Don't know

75. If you answered yes to the previous question, please indicate which organizations set the standards.

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________

LCTL Materials Survey, September 1998

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF ORGANIZATIONS OF LESS COMMONLY TAUGHT LANGUAGES

Less Commonly Taught Language Materials Survey

The National Foreign Language Center (NFLC), in cooperation with the National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages, is conducting a survey of the principal textbooks available in the less commonly taught language. This survey is part of a larger project to evaluate the relative contribution of Title VI of the Higher Education Act to national language capacity in the less commonly taught languages. The NFLC has been charged with evaluating the language training portion of Title VI, and developing recommendations for its future shape. Your participation in this survey will help the NFLC to determine which textbooks currently used in the less commonly taught languages were developed with Title VI support. All responses are confidential, and no institution or individual will be identified in any report. Please return this report to Bill Rivers or mail it to the NFLC: 1619 Massachusetts Avenue, NW, #400, Washington, DC 20036.

Name:

Academic Institution: HS? College? Other?

Title:

NCOLCTL membership (e.g., AATT, AATK, CLASS):

Language(s) you teach or supervise: Level(s):

Please list the three textbooks for each level which, in your professional judgment, are the primary commercially available textbooks and teaching materials (e.g., CD-ROM, video courses) used in the United States. Please list the title and last names of the author(s). NOTE: If you teach or supervise more than one language, you may list the textbooks for additional languages on the reverse of this form.

Level 1:

Level 2:

Level 3:

Level 4 and beyond:

APPENDIX 3.3

Survey of Interagency Language Roundtable Personnel, March 1998

The National Foreign Language Center Baseline Survey of Matches Between National Language Need and National Capacity: Title VI of the Higher Education Act

Survey of ILR Personnel Language Responsibilities and Educational Background

The National Foreign Language Center (NFLC), in cooperation with the Interagency Language Roundtable, is conducting a survey of the educational backgrounds and language responsibilities of ILR language personnel, to determine the relative contribution of Title VI of the Higher Education Act to the collective language expertise of the United States Government. The NFLC has been charged with evaluating the language training portion of Title VI, and developing recommendations for its future shape. Your participation in this survey will help the NFLC in establishing the value of Title VI to the agencies of the USG which have foreign language requirements. All responses are confidential, and no agency, language, or individual will be identified in any report.

Name:

Position:

Grade (or Rank and Service):

GS/MOS designation:
Agency:

Is your position a language-designated position?

If yes, for which language(s)?

Please indicate your highest educational level:

BA/BS
MA/MS
Ph.D.
Other

Where and when did you receive your degree(s)?

BA
MA
Ph.D.

Were you ever a recipient of a Foreign Language and Area Studies Fellowship?

Please indicate which language-related tasks your job requires:

Analysis
Translation
Interpretation
Teaching
Materials development
Curriculum development
Management
Other ______________________________

APPENDIX 3.4

Survey of Recipients of FLAS Fellowships, April 1997

#_____

April 15, 1997

Dear FLAS Student,

The National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) in Washington, D.C. is conducting a study of the foreign language programs supported by Title VI of the Higher Education Act. As part of the overall study, students holding Title VI FLAS fellowships are being surveyed so that their views can be incorporated in the study. The confidentiality of individual responses will be maintained, and no individuals will be identified in our report. We would very much appreciate your filling out this questionnaire and returning it to your program's center director to be forwarded to the NFLC. Your response may assist future holders of FLAS fellowships.

Sincerely,

Richard D. Brecht, Study Director

BACKGROUND

1. Your name (optional):

2. Date of birth: 3. Sex:

4. Your college or university:

5. The foreign area you are studying (if international studies, please write "international"):

6. The degree for which you are studying:

A) B.A.	D) Ph.D.
B) M.A.	E) J.D.
C) M.B.A.	F) Other (Please specify)

7. The discipline or major of your degree program (if interdisciplinary, please indicate):

8. In what country were you born?

9. In what country or countries did you spend your childhood and teenage years?

10. What is your primary ethnic heritage?

11. What is your native language?

12. If any languages other than your native language were spoken in your family home, please list them:

13. Did you take a foreign language or languages in elementary and/or middle school?

14. If yes, which one(s)?

15. For how many years each?

16. Did you take a foreign language or languages in high school?

17. If yes, which one(s)?

18. For how many years each?

19. Did you take a foreign language or languages in college?

20. If yes, which one(s)?

21. For how many semesters or quarters each?

22. Did you major in foreign languages or literature?

23. Have you spent time in a foreign country?

24. If yes, which one(s)?

25. For how long?

26. Have you studied a language in-country?

27. If so, which language?

28. Where?

29. For how long?

CURRENT INSTRUCTION (For multiple-choice answers, please circle the best answer.)

30. What foreign language are you currently taking to satisfy your FLAS fellowship requirements?

31. How many students are enrolled in the class or section in which you are taking this language?

32. What level is this class?

    A) Very Beginning (1st semester)
    B) Advanced Beginner (2nd semester)
    C) Low Intermediate (3rd semester)
    D) Intermediate (4th semester)
    E) Advanced Intermediate (5th semester)
    F) Advanced (6th semester or beyond)

33. How many times a week does this class meet?

34. Who teaches your class?

    A) Professor
    B) Teaching Assistant
    C) Other

35. Which one of the following terms best describes the primary focus of this class?

    A) Conversation
    B) Reading/Writing
    C) Grammar
    D) Literature
    E) Translation
    F) Culture

36. Which one of the following would you prefer the class to focus on?

    A) Conversation
    B) Reading/Writing
    C) Grammar
    D) Literature
    E) Translation
    F) Culture

37. To the extent that your language class has cultural dimensions, which one of the following terms best describes its most important cultural component?

    A) Literature
    B) Art
    C) Customs and Folklore
    D) History
    E) Current Events
    F) People's Everyday Lives
    G) There is absolutely no cultural dimension to this class

38. Which of the following best describes the average percent of class time that your instructor speaks in the language you are studying?

    A) 0-20%
    B) 20%-40%
    C) 40%-60%
    D) 60%-80%
    E) 80%-100%

39. On average, how often in class do you get to speak in the language you are studying?

    A) Never
    B) Once or twice
    C) Three or four times
    D) Five or six times
    E) More than six times

40. How many hours per week are you required to be in your language class?

A) None
B) 1
C) 2
D) 3
E) 4
F) 5
G) 6 or more hours

41. How many hours per week do you spend in small group conversation sessions?

A) None
B) 1
C) 2
D) 3
E) 4
F) 5
G) 6 or more hours

42. How many hours per week do you spend in grammar and drill sessions?

A) None
B) 1
C) 2
D) 3
E) 4
F) 5
G) 6 or more hours

43. How many hours per week do you spend in the language laboratory/learning center?

A) None
B) 1
C) 2
D) 3
E) 4
F) 5
G) 6 or more hours

44. How many hours per week do you spend in independent computer-aided instruction?

A) None
B) 1 to 2
C) 3 to 4
D) 5 to 6
E) 7 to 8
F) More than 8

45. How many hours per week do you spend doing homework?

A) None
B) 1 to 2
C) 3 to 4
D) 5 to 6
E) 7 to 8
F) More than 8

46. How many hours per week do you spend in informal conversation with speakers of the language?

A) None
B) 1 to 2
C) 3 to 4
D) 5 to 6
E) 7 to 8
F) More than 8

47. How many hours per week outside of class do you spend in conversation with fellow students in the language?

A) None
B) 1 to 2
C) 3 to 4
D) 5 to 6
E) 7 to 8
F) More than 8

48. If you do spend time speaking the language you are studying outside of class, with whom do you speak the most often?

A) Friends or fellow students
B) Family members
C) Tutor
D) Community members
E) I rarely speak the language outside of class

49. How would you rate your satisfaction with this language class?

A) Excellent
B) Good
C) Average
D) Worse than average
E) Poor

50. How would you assess your program's foreign language instruction overall?

A) Excellent
B) Good
C) Average
D) Worse than average
E) Poor

51. Please rate the importance to you of EACH of these reasons for taking the class, on a scale of 1 (most important) to 5 (least important).

A) To fulfill a program requirement
1 2 3 4 5

B) To fulfill the FLAS Fellowship requirement
1 2 3 4 5

C) To use as a tool for other academic work
1 2 3 4 5

D) To prepare for overseas field work
1 2 3 4 5

C) To enhance my chances of employment
1 2 3 4 5

D) To retain my ethnic heritage
1 2 3 4 5

E) Because of other contact with the language
1 2 3 4 5

F) For personal reasons
1 2 3 4 5

52. How many more courses in this language do you plan to take?

A) None
B) One
C) Two
D) Three
E) Four
F) Five or more

53. Would you like to study this language abroad?

54. If so, where?

55. What is your major obstacle to studying abroad? Choose the one best answer.

A) Money
B) Time
C) Work commitments
D) Family commitments
E) Meeting degree requirements
F) Lack of an organized program
G) There are no obstacles

56. Please describe your professional aspirations in the near and long-term future.

APPENDIX 3.5

Survey of Academic Administrators to Whom Directors of Title VI NRCs Report, April 1997

To: **Academic Administrators to whom Directors of Title VI NRCs report**

From: Richard Brecht, Deputy Director, National Foreign Language Center

Subject: Request to participate in Survey

Date: April 15, 1997

The National Foreign Language Center at The Johns Hopkins University is conducting a survey funded by the U.S. Department of Education on the language component of Title VI of the Higher Education Act. Those to be surveyed include administrators, National Resource Center (NRC) directors, coordinators of NRC-related language programs, language faculty and graduate students holding Title IV FLAS fellowships.

Attached to this letter is the questionnaire designed for academic officers to whom NRC directors report. It is very brief and should take you only five minutes to fill out. We hope you will take the time to do this immediately rather than set it aside.

You have our assurances that our findings will not identify by name any respondents or institutions. The study is designed to document language needs of the Title VI community, not to evaluate individual programs. We would like to thank you for assisting this effort.

Background

1. Name (optional):
2. Administrative Title:
3. Academic title (if applicable):
4. Foreign area(s) covered by NRC or NRCs that report to you:
5. Name of university:

Multiple Choice

6. Which answer best describes the priority your institution attaches to international education in general?

   A. Highest Priority
   B. High Priority
   C. Average Priority
   D. Low Priority
   E. Lowest Priority

7. Which answer best describes the priority your institution attaches to foreign language instruction?

   A. Highest Priority
   B. High Priority
   C. Average Priority
   D. Low priority
   E. Lowest Priority

8. Which answer best describes the priority your institution attaches to your NRC or NRCs?

   A. Highest Priority
   B. High Priority
   C. Average priority
   D. Low Priority
   E. Lowest priority

9. Which answer best describes the academic quality of the language and area studies programs administered by your NRC or NRCs?

   A. Highest Quality
   B. High Quality
   C. Average Quality
   D. Low Quality
   E. Lowest Quality

10. How does the NRC's language and area studies program compare in quality with the degree programs offered by disciplinary departments at your institution?

    A. Much Higher Quality
    B. Higher Quality
    C. Similar Quality
    D. Lower Quality
    E. Much Lower Quality

11. Which answer best describes the importance of Title VI funding to the long-term development of foreign language and area studies programs at your institution?

    A. Highest priority
    B. High Priority
    C. Average priority
    D. Low Priority
    E. Lowest Priority

12. Which answer best describes what would happen to the language instruction component of your NCR's program if federal Title VI funds were withdrawn?

    A. No impact at all
    B. Minor Loss of Offerings
    C. Moderate Losses
    D. Major Curtailments
    E. Elimination

13. When filling faculty lines, how much priority does your administration attach to the language and area studies needs of your NRC?

    A. Absolutely Critical
    B. Important
    C. Useful
    D. Only Moderately Useful
    E. Not Important

14. How likely are academic administrators at your institution to exert pressure on academic departments to fill vacant positions with faculty that can strengthen your NRC programs?

    A. Very Likely
    B. Likely
    C. Occasionally Likely
    D. Unlikely
    E. Very Unlikely

15. How do the NRCs, as presently configured, meet the changing needs of your campus and its departments?

    A. Perfectly
    B. Very Well
    C. Somewhat
    D. Not very Well
    E. Not at All

16. Please comment in general about the role of Title VI funding and the overall prospect for foreign language and area studies at your institution.

APPENDIX 3.6

Survey of NRC Directors, March 1997

____ (Control #)

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR NRC DIRECTORS ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE ISSUES

Instructions: Please answer to the best of your ability. If you do not have the information necessary to complete an item, an informed guess or no answer are both acceptable; we prefer a partially completed questionnaire to no response at all.

Background Information:

1. Name of respondent:
2. Administrative title:
3. Academic title (if applicable):
4. Foreign area(s) covered by center program:
5. Name of university:

Foreign Language Offerings:

6. Foreign languages taught in support of the center program (please list all):

7. Which of these languages are offered by another unit, such as a department of foreign languages?

8. Which of these languages are offered by the center itself?

9. Which of these languages are offered with support of Title VI NRC funds?

10. Which of these languages could NOT be offered without Title VI NRC funds?

11. Which languages would the center like to offer that are not currently offered?

12. Please estimate the number of sections of language courses supported with Title VI funds each academic year:

13. Please estimate the number of annual student enrollments:
    In those foreign language courses supported by Title VI NRC funds:

    In all language courses relevant to the center's programs:

Assessment: (Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with the following statements by circling the number of the response that best indicates your views:)

14.	Title VI NRC funding has been used to introduce instruction in foreign languages that was not previously offered.	1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Uncertain 4. Disagree 5. Strongly disagree
15.	Title VI NRC funding has provided leverage to build relationships with other units offering language instruction..	1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Uncertain 4. Disagree 5. Strongly disagree
16.	Title VI NRC funding has been essential for development and maintenance of the foreign language component of the center's programs.	1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Uncertain 4. Disagree 5. Strongly disagree

17. Title VI NRC funding is adequate to meet all the foreign language needs of the center's programs.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

18. Foreign language offerings at your institution are NOT adequate from the standpoint of optimizing the center's programs.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

19. Course offerings in foreign languages of interest to your center's programs are adequate to meet student demand.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain.
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

20. Demand for foreign languages of interest to your center is fueled by the ethnic heritage of students.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

21. Ethnic heritage demand is placing pressure on course offerings needed for your center's programs.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

22. Language offerings have been an important component of your center's community outreach programs.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

23. The language offerings needed for your center's programs are under financial pressure or are otherwise at risk.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

24. Without continued Title VI NRC funding some language offerings needed for your center's programs will not survive.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

25. The foreign language courses needed for your center's programs will continue to be offered in the absence of Title VI NRC funding.
    1. Strongly agree
    2. Agree
    3. Uncertain
    4. Disagree
    5. Strongly disagree

Open-ended questions: (Please feel free to respond at length to the following questions. If the space is not adequate, you may attach additional sheets of paper.)

26. How have your center's needs for foreign language instruction changed in recent years, and why?

____

____

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27. What is the indirect role of Title VI NRC funding in supporting language programs on your campus?

____

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____

28. What are the major problems or threats to your center's ability to meet its foreign language training needs?

____

____

____

29. What are your center's unmet foreign language needs?

____

____

____

30. Are there other foreign language issues on which you would like to comment?

APPENDIX 3.7

Globalization of the Professions Survey, February 1999

GLOBALIZATION OF THE PROFESSIONS: *A BRIEF SURVEY*

Developed in cooperation between the ***Center for Quality Assurance in International Education*** **(CQAIE)** and the Johns Hopkins University National Foreign Language Center (NFLC), the questions below are directed to your organization as it represents either the profession as a whole or has functions related to professional accreditation, certification and/or licensure. The information which you provide in response to the survey will serve directly to inform national language and higher education policy and indirectly, trade in educational and professional services.

Additionally, we encourage you to send us a copy of relevant documents (such as texts of international agreements or articles about international collaborative activities from your newsletters).

Once you have completed the form, please press the SUBMIT ***button at the bottom of the page.***

Profession:

General Information about the Globalization of your Profession

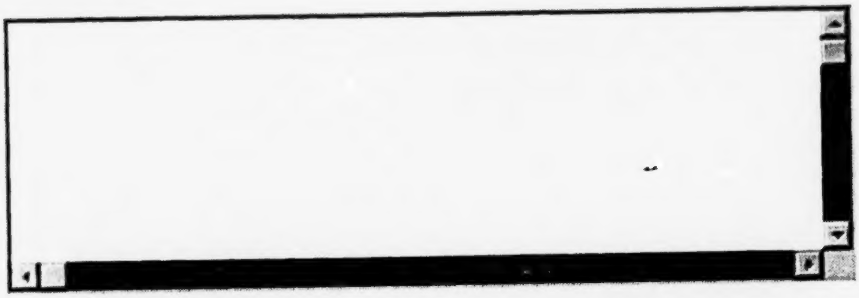
1. **Generally speaking, from which regions or countries do members of your profession come to practice in your country?**

2. **Generally speaking, to which countries or regions of the world do members of your profession go to practice?**

3. **Which countries or regions of the world are currently most profitable for your members? Why?**

4. Which countries or regions of the world have the most potential for future expansion of your profession? Why? Why has this not been the case in the past?

5. Are certain areas of the world not accessible to members of your profession? Why?



Agreements and Barriers with Foreign Counterparts

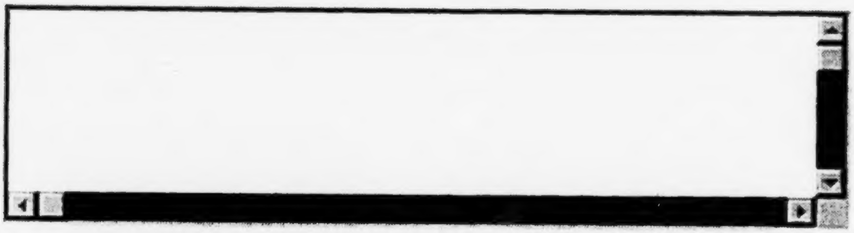
6. Does your profession have *mutual recognition agreements* with the profession in other countries? (Note: An example of a *mutual recognition agreement* is the *Washington Accord*, which recognizes the equivalency of accredited engineering education programs worldwide, leading to an engineering degree.)

If your profession has executed *mutual recognition agreements,* are these agreements related to:

(a) education or accreditation;
(b) practical experience;
(c) licensure/registration;
(d) other?

7. **Does your profession *collaborate*, either formally or informally, with its counterparts in other countries? (An example of multilateral cooperation is the *Trilateral Initiative*, a collaborative study of the nursing profession in the signatory countries of NAFTA—Canada, USA and Mexico.)**

8. **What is the name of the organization that represents your profession internationally? Does it have *international* educational standards; codes of ethics and/or codes of practice? (As an example, the International Federation of Nurse Anesthetists [IFNA] has all of the above.)**



Electronic Transmission

9. **To what extent does your profession use electronic transmission to globalize (e.g. telepractice, general communication, or electronic commerce)? Please explain.**

Language and Literacy

10. Are knowledge of foreign languages and cross-cultural competencies necessary to practice your profession outside your country?

11. If so, what knowledge, skills, attitudes and abilities do you feel are most important in the practice of your profession across borders?

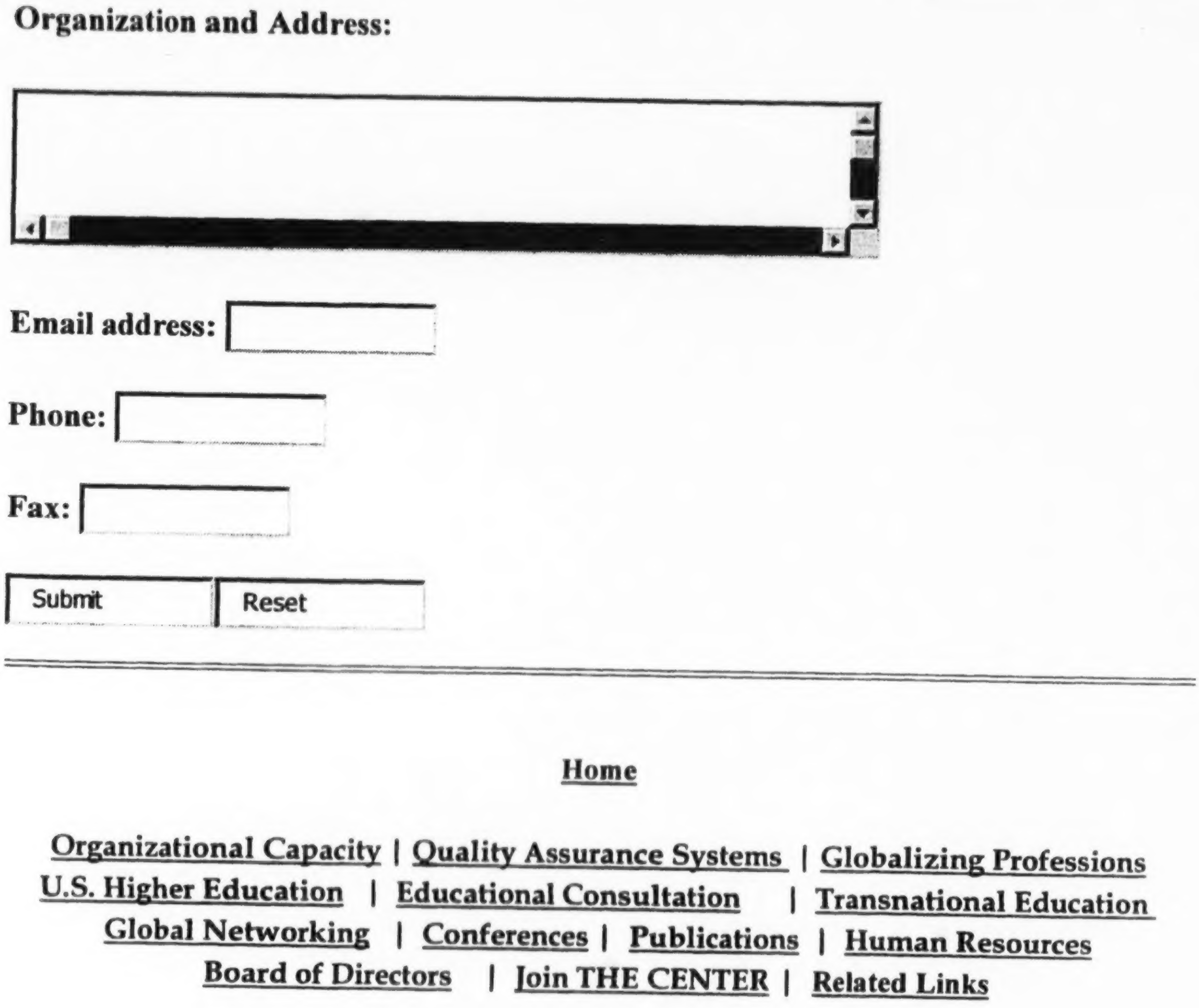
12. Are your members generally prepared culturally and linguistically to practice abroad?

Contact Person

Please identify a contact person from your organization for potential follow-up on this survey. This contact may be the person responding to the survey:

Name:

Title:



Organization and Address:

Email address: ☐

Phone: ☐

Fax: ☐

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in Strengthening the National Language Capacity

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